DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 097 141 RC 008 144

AUTHOR Isenberg, Robert M., Ed.
TITLE Journal on State School Systems Development, Spring 1967, Vol. 1, No. 1.
INSTITUTION National Education Association, Washington, D.C. Dept. of Rural Education.
PUB DATE 67
NOTE 85p.
AVAILABLE FROM Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036 ($1.50)

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.75 HC-$4.20 PLUS POSTAGE
DESCRIPTORS *Annotated Bibliographies; County School Systems; Doctoral Theses; Educational Legislation; *Educational Planning; *Intermediate Administrative Units; Models; *Periodicals; Program Development; School Organization; *State School District Relationship; Statewide Planning; Supplementary Education

ABSTRACT

The "Journal on State School Systems Development" is designed for the regular and orderly reporting of information and developments related to specialized school government as a system for accomplishing public educational purposes. Its issues include reports of State and Federal legislative action, program implications, special projects, and research findings as well as discussions of intergovernmental relations and specific issues. Articles included in the Spring 1967, Vol. 1, No. 1, issue are: (1) "Necessary State Planning in Education"; (2) "Patterns and Trends in State School System Development"; (3) "The Intermediate School District Middle Echelon of a Three-Echelon State System of Schools"; (4) "Some Thoughts on a Model of State School System Design"; (5) "The Nebraska Service Unit--Its Provisions, Problems, and Potential"; and (6) "Bibliography: Doctoral Dissertations Related to the Intermediate Administrative Unit." (NQ)

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Journal on STATE SCHOOL SYSTEMS DEVELOPMENT

SPRING 1967 ■ VOLUME I NUMBER I

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Journal on State School Systems DEVELOPMENT

The JOURNAL is designed for the regular and orderly reporting of information and developments related to specialized school government as a system for accomplishing public educational purposes. Its issues include reports of state and federal legislative action, program implications, special projects, and research findings as well as discussions of intergovernmental relations and specific issues. It is not a spokesman for a single point of view. It serves instead as a printed forum for responsible contributors and a source of information for those concerned about school government, its objectives, and its productivity.

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Published quarterly by the Division of County and Intermediate Unit Superintendents, Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

[redacted] single issue, $1.50. Orders should be accompanied by payment; checks, payable to the Journal on State School Systems Development, should be sent to the Department of Rural Education at the above address.

GUEST EDITORIAL

Necessary State Planning in Education

THE FOUNDERS of this potentially important periodical deserve widespread commendation and support. They plan to stimulate better local, regional, and state organization and cooperation for the improvement of school programs everywhere. This is on our wave-length. We are glad to tune in.

Achievement of these objectives urgently requires state planning and coordination of services to local educational agencies. Most programs in most attendance units of most local educational agencies stand more in need of stimulation and supplementation than their operators and sponsors realize. Local programs vary widely in scope and quality in every state, and good regional services can improve them everywhere. The problem is how to make special services universally available and to encourage their use in such areas as curriculum development, pupil and teacher personnel, adult and vocational education, remedial instruction, administration, data processing, new media and methods, and others.

Several uncoordinated and partial solutions to this problem are evident. Strong suburban school systems spend their own money to command better teachers and to develop excellent programs and facilities, but often turn away when the needs of their rural or urban ghetto neighbors are mentioned. A few county units provide excellent services with fine leadership under favorable conditions in several states, but these states often continue to support other county school offices of the kind that were more adequate in simpler times. There are several emerging state patterns of regional centers that are being planned to serve all local educational agencies, but state legislatures are implementing these patterns slowly.[1] The time has arrived for comprehensive planning.

[1] See *Regional Educational Service Agency Prototypes*, prepared for the U. S. Office of Education by the Department of Rural Education, NEA, January 1967; *An Intermediate Unit for Pennsylvania*, State Board of Education, January 1967.

During the first two years of operation of Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, federal funds have been approved for local educational agencies on the basis of local promises to provide new or different services in education. These one-year grants have not required coordination of local projects in statewide patterns of prospective intermediate service agencies on a continuing basis. The Title III requirement for state agency review and recommendation on these locally initiated and federally approved projects often has been meaningless, and quite frequently embarrassing. Many state agencies found themselves unable to cope with personal and political pressures on Washington generated among local districts competing for favorable federal decisions. Too often, federal decisions have overruled carefully made state department recommendations. Title III has given the state agencies responsibility without suitable authority regarding local projects and under circumstances inevitably creating conflicts the state agencies are powerless to resolve.

Beginning in 1967, the federal government will become an important if not dominant factor in this area of education. With increased funds, it will emphasize establishment of new supplementary service centers under Title III. All states should now plan these centers and coordinate them with similar state and local regional service arrangements.

Both experience and policy considerations support state plans for Title III. After all, approximately 15 states voluntarily coordinated the local projects on a statewide basis during the first two years of Title III operation and earned high praise from the U. S. Office of Education. In a memorandum of November 9, 1966, USOE made the following evaluation:

> An analysis of the first year of operation of PACE reveals some very important facts. States in which the departments of education have taken the responsibility to organize for and give direction to Title III at the State level have submitted projects which (1) are of higher quality, (2) are more exemplary and innovative in content and service, (3) significantly relate the State's assessment of educational needs or problems at the local level to solutions in the national, State, and local interest, and (4) have apparently made full and wise use of funds available to that State.

With this encouragement, the Council of Chief State School Officers passed a resolution on November 18, 1966, including the following:

> In view of this experience, the Council urges that Title III be amended to authorize the use of state plans for its future administration. Such plans should be developed according to criteria established by the U. S. Office of Education, in cooperation with the state departments of education. Within the requirements of these criteria, the state education agencies should be authorized to evaluate and approve Title III projects proposed by local educational agencies.
>
> It is imperative that all state education agencies actively coordinate the administration of Title III with reference to their potential or existing local and regional educational service units. With such coordination, exercised in full cooperation with the vast reservoir of leadership in local education agencies, many conditions that now restrict general educational improvement can be removed.

This position was approved on January 18, 1967, by a Legislative Conference of the American Association of School Administrators, the Council of Chief State School Officers, the National Association of State Boards of Education, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, the National Education Association, and the National School Boards Association. There were no objections to state plans. There were some objections to a federal "set aside" of approximately 15 percent for special projects to be approved by the U. S. Commissioner of Education without reference to state plans. Expressions generally favored postponing for a year or two if necessary the date the state plans would become effective.

These positions have been communicated to the Administration. Thus far it has not recommended that Title III be amended to authorize such state responsibility under state plans, or even that Title III be extended so states and local agencies may have time to plan their programs for another year.

Without these changes, federal administration of Title III supplementary centers may deny great benefits to 35 or more states without state plans. In these states there would be growth of systems of supplementary centers but no real state responsibility for their number and location. Such denial of state responsibility would be far more serious than it has been for purely local annual projects.

As the U. S. Commissioner of Education makes the decisions on a local basis, these 35 disadvantaged states will lack the administrative, psychological, and public reinforcement they need.

They will be weakened in full view of their constituencies of citizens and their state and local governments. The federal government refuses, in substance, to use educational methods in education. It helps the strong, but in Title III it denies to the weak the things that would enable the weak to become strong. It is as though a classroom teacher overemphasized demonstrations by brilliant pupils while the disadvantaged pupils looked on without being given practice in and responsibility for improving themselves.

On the basis of federal, state, and local policy considerations, Title III should not be allowed to develop a federally financed system of supplementary service centers paralleling and sometimes duplicating systems of similar centers established and supported by the states. Title III should be amended in 1967 to require state plans in every state. State systems of regional service centers, administered and financed by state and local agencies with financial assistance from the federal government for its own defined purposes, would provide the coordinated services needed in all states.

EDGAR FULLER
Executive Secretary
Council of Chief State School Officers

Abstracted Separately as
ED 017346

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PATTERNS AND TRENDS

In State School System Development

Charles O. Fitzwater

THERE IS VALID reason to view all of the agencies for administering the public schools in each of the states as parts of a state system. In a legal sense education is a state function in our constitutional arrangements for school government. This is true in all states without exception. The constitutions of all the states provide, directly or indirectly, that a system of public schools shall be established and maintained. As used in this paper the term *state school system* therefore includes all of the administrative agencies which a state has established for conducting its public schools. These administrative agencies are:

1. The state education agency, which is usually referred to as the state department of education.
2. The local school districts, which are the basic units of school administration and are delegated responsibility for operation of the public schools.
3. Intermediate administrative units, which function between the local school district and the state education agency to supplement and support their programs and services in the total public school enterprise.

In a structural sense, each of these three types of agencies constitutes an echelon or level of administrative responsibility in the state system of public schools. All of the types within a state collectively constitute its structure for administering the

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public schools. Among the 50 state systems of education there are three different structural patterns, as indicated by Figure I.

1. Hawaii's structure is centralized, consisting of a single agency—the State Education Agency—which is responsible for direct administration and operation of all public schools in the state.
2. Seventeen states have a two-level structure consisting of the state education agency and the local school districts. This pattern is largely concentrated in the Southeast, but there is also a four-state cluster in the Western part of the country. In 12 of these 17 states the county-unit type of local school district organization is predominant.
3. Thirty-two states currently have a three-level structure consisting of the state education agency, local school districts, and intermediate administrative units. In these 32 states most local school districts are smaller in area than counties, but several states have sizable numbers of local districts that are county units. The most prevalent type of intermediate administrative unit is the county, but as will be noted later recent years have brought a trend toward larger intermediate units.

Viewed nationwide, none of the three levels of school administrative agencies has been static either in function or in organization. Over the years each level has been undergoing the processes of evolution, and in recent decades, particularly since 1945, the rate of change has been quickening.

Practically every state school system has been reshaped in some way or to some degree since 1945, and at least 32 of the 50 states have had organizational changes that can reasonably be regarded as having major significance in the operation and functioning of the state system of education. The widespread occurrence of these major organizational changes, the nature of which will be described later, is indicated in Figure II. All three echelons or types of administrative agencies were affected: state education agency organization in 17 states, local school district organization in 24 states, and intermediate administrative organization in 13 states.

Eighteen of the 32 states made major changes in more than one echelon or type of school administrative agency. Five of the 32 states made major changes in three levels of administrative structure: the state education agency, the local school district,

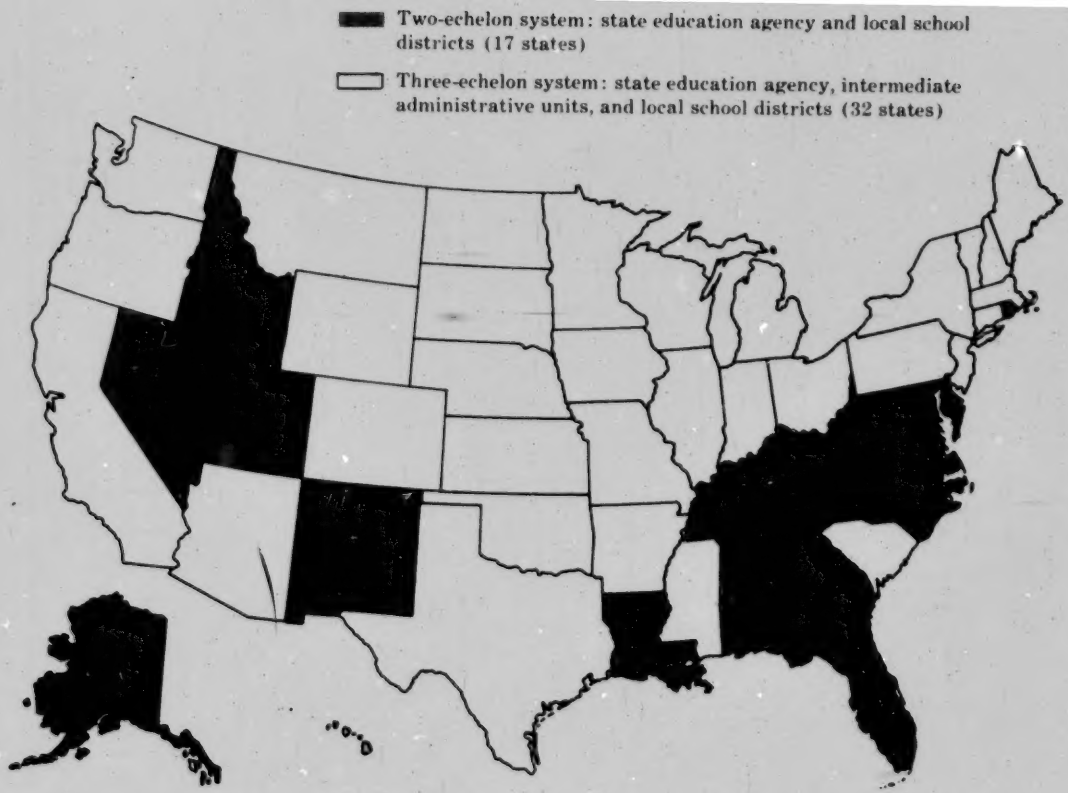
Two-echelon system: state education agency and local school districts (17 states)
Three-echelon system: state education agency, intermediate administrative units, and local school districts (32 states)

FIGURE I. PATTERNS OF STRUCTURE IN STATE SYSTEMS OF EDUCATION, FALL 1966

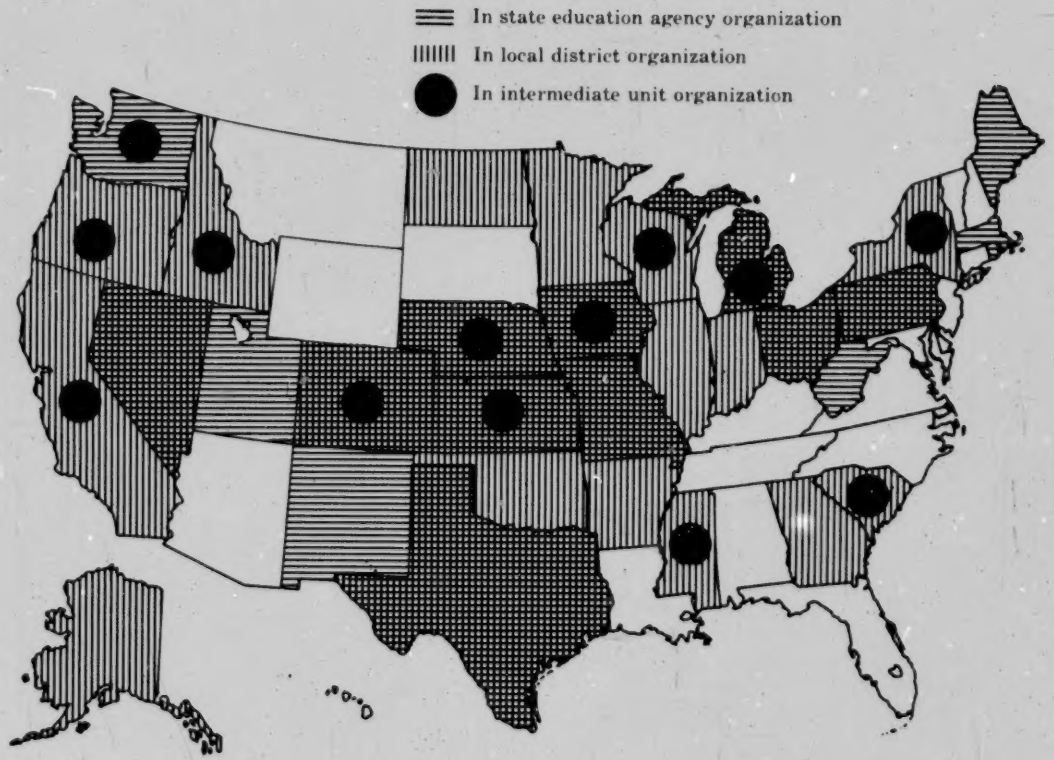

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FIGURE II. STATES THAT HAVE MADE MAJOR CHANGES SINCE 1945

and intermediate administrative units. Five other states made major changes both in the state education agency and in the local school district structure; seven more made them in both local and intermediate district structure; and one made changes in both state and intermediate structure.

STATE AGENCY PATTERNS AND TRENDS

There is wide variation among the states in state education agency organization. This variation applies to all major components of the state education agency. The major components considered here are the state board of education, the chief state school officer, and the state department of education staff.

The State Board of Education

Forty-eight states, all except Illinois and Wisconsin, have a state board of education. Eight of these 48 states (Iowa, Maine, Michigan, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, Rhode Island, and South Dakota) have established these boards since 1947.

In 46 of the 50 states the state board of education is responsible for administering vocational education. Of the other four states Illinois and Wisconsin have a state board of vocational education but no state board of education; Colorado and Indiana have both a state board of education and a state board for vocational education. In 43 states (all except Colorado, Massachusetts, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Illinois, and Wisconsin) the state board of education also functions as the state board for vocational rehabilitation.

The size of state boards of education ranges from 23 members in Ohio to 3 in Mississippi (Table 1). However, 40 of the state boards fall in the 5- to 11-member range. The most common size is 7 members—11 states; the next most common size is 9 members—7 states. Thirty-three of the 40 states have odd-numbered boards. The length of state board members' terms ranges from 13 years in New York to 2 years in North Dakota. A 6-year term is most common—15 states.

The membership on state boards of education falls into two broad classifications: members chosen specifically for service on the state board of education and members who serve ex officio or by virtue of state office or position held. In Florida and Mississippi the state board of education is composed entirely of ex officio members. In North Dakota three of the five members of the state board serve ex officio. Ten other state boards have

one or more ex officio members, but in none of these are the ex officio members in a majority. There is a marked trend away from ex officio membership on state boards of education, down from 21 states in 1950 to 13 states in 1966. The most common ex officio member is the chief state school officer, and wherever that official serves as member ex officio of the state board, he is chosen for office by popular vote.

As to members chosen specifically for state board membership, the most common method of selection is appointment by the

TABLE I
SIZE OF MEMBERSHIP
OF STATE BOARDS OF EDUCATION

Number of Members	State
23	Ohio
21	Texas
19	Indiana (1)*
14	Washington
13	New York, North Carolina (3)
12	New Jersey
11	Alabama (2), Hawaii (1), Louisiana, Montana (3), Tennessee (2)
10	California, Georgia, Maine, New Mexico, Pennsylvania (1)
9	Arizona (3), Arkansas, Connecticut, Iowa, Massachusetts, South Carolina (2), Utah, West Virginia
8	Kentucky (1), Michigan, Missouri, Nevada
7	Kansas, Maryland, Minnesota, New Hampshire, Oklahoma (1), Oregon, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Vermont, Virginia, Wyoming (1)
6	Alaska, Delaware, Idaho (1), Nebraska
5	Colorado, Florida (5), North Dakota (3)
3	Mississippi (3)

*( ) indicates number of ex officio members.

Sources: Adapted from Robert F. Will, *State Education Structure and Organization*. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Misc. No. 46, 1964, p. 17 & 18. Updated on changes after 1963 from state sources.

governor—32 states. In 10 states members are elected by the people; all of these 10 states except Louisiana and Nevada have adopted the popular election method since 1947. Other methods of selection cover a broad range: election by the Legislature in New York, by local school boards in Washington, by congressional delegations in South Carolina, and in Wyoming appointment by the chief state school officer who is an ex officio member.

The Chief State School Officer

The chief state school officer occupies a key position in the state school system structure. Although the strength of this position still varies markedly among the states, it has everywhere been rapidly gaining in importance. The official title of the position also varies. In 27 states it is Superintendent of Public Instruction. The next most common title, in 15 states, is Commissioner of Education.

Because of his leadership role in the total state system of education, the method of selecting the chief state school officer is of importance. Selection methods are shown in Figure III. In five states he is appointed by the governor. In 21 states he is elected by popular vote, in 15 states on a partisan ballot and in the other 6 states on a nonpartisan ballot. The most common method of selection, used in 24 states, is appointment by the state board of education.

The strong trend toward appointment by the state board of education is indicated in Figure III, which gives the year the 24 states adopted that method of selection. Sixteen of the 24 states have adopted this method of selection since 1945. Kansas was the latest, with a constitutional amendment approved by the voters in November 1966. It will be noted that the trend toward appointment by the state board of education is strongest in the Western part of the country. In former years both Massachusetts and Rhode Island used the board-appointed method, later changing to appointment by the governor, and subsequently returned to the board-appointed method.

The length of term for chief state school officers varies and bears a marked relationship to the method of selection. Of the 21 states providing for election by popular vote, 15 provide for 4-year terms and 6 for 2-year terms. Of the 24 states providing for appointment by the state board of education, 18 provide for terms of indefinite length.

The method of selection also tends to influence the relationship of the chief state school officer to the state board of education. None of the 24 board-appointed chief state school officers serves as an ex officio member of the state board. In 10 of the 21 states where the chief state school officer is elected by popular vote, he serves as an ex officio member of the state board.

The State Department of Education

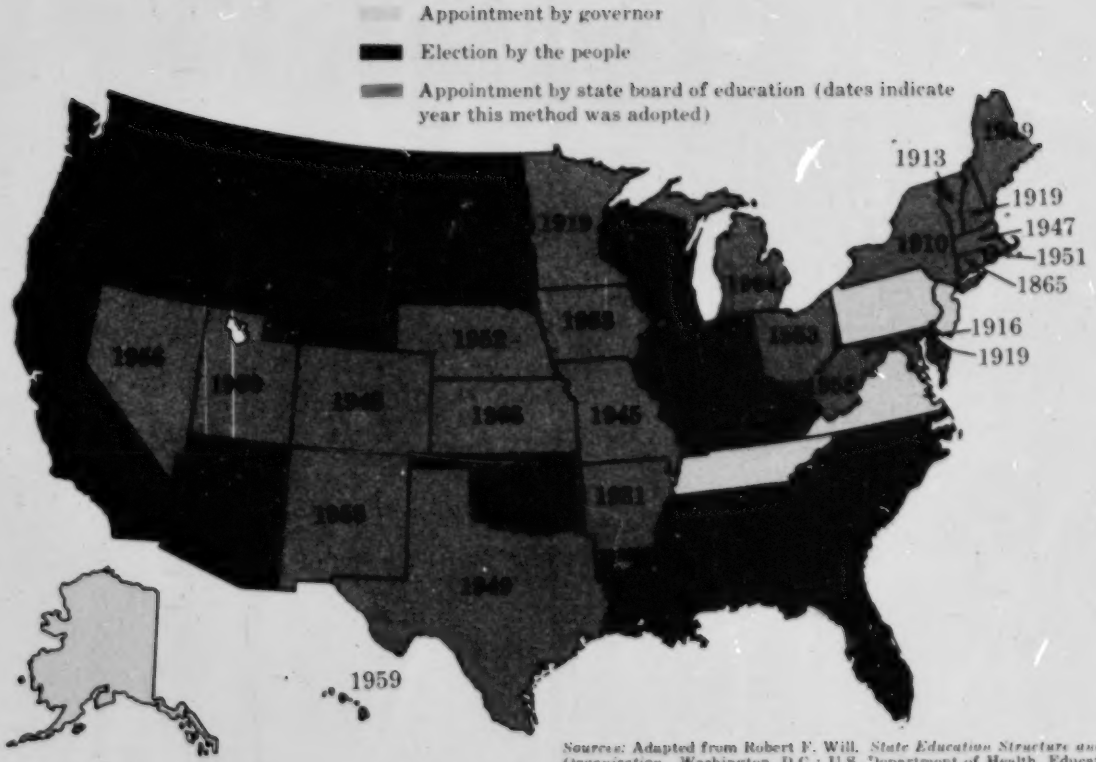
The professional staff members employed to assist the chief state school officer in performing the functions of the state education agency are usually referred to as the state department of education. Although state department of education staff size varies greatly, precise comparisons are difficult to make on an objective basis because of differences in program responsibilities and functions. These differences, however, would account for only a portion, most probably a quite small portion, of the existing wide variations in professional staff size.

New York State, with 769 full-time professional staff members, has the largest staff; North Dakota, with 27, has the smallest. Only 8 states, all of them among the top 12 states in size of pupil enrollment, have more than 200 full-time professional staff members; 29 states, however, have fewer than 100.

Professional staff size per 10,000 public school pupils gives added perspective. New York, with a public school enrollment of 3.2 million pupils, has a professional staff ratio of 2.41 per 10,000 pupils, compared with North Dakota's ratio of 1.81 per 10,000 for its total of 149,000 pupils.

Administration of federal programs of school aid has had a heavy impact on state department of education development. One study showed that in 1960 the 50 state departments of education together employed 6,786 professionals of whom 3,849 (or 56.7 percent) were assigned to federally subsidized programs administered by these departments; in 13 of the states more than 70 percent of the total professional staff were engaged in federally subsidized programs.

For years, and especially after the mid-1950's, state department of education growth was heavily concentrated in federally subsidized program areas to the neglect of other vital areas unsupported by federal subsidy. To correct these imbalances, in 1965 the Congress enacted Title V of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act to assist the states in strengthening their state education agencies and in identifying and meeting their



Sources: Adapted from Robert F. Will, *State Education Structure and Organization*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Misc. No. 46, 1964, p. 20-27. Updated on changes after 1963 from state sources.

FIGURE III. METHODS OF SELECTING CHIEF STATE SCHOOL OFFICER

educational needs. With this new assistance program state education agencies are attempting to upgrade and expand their programs and alleviate imbalances in them. Among the program functions most emphasized are: leadership and services for improvement of instruction; development of data processing and statistical services; strengthening of general administration, educational planning, and evaluation; and coordination of research activities.

The emphasis that a growing number of states are giving to comprehensive educational planning constitutes a trend of major significance for state school system development. A related emerging trend is the increasing emphasis on improving relationships with and services to large urban school systems.

LOCAL DISTRICT RESTRUCTURING

The basic units in the state systems of education are the local school districts. They are the basic units because they actually operate the schools. It will be recalled that in Hawaii the state education agency also functions as the basic school district.

Concentration of Pupils in Fewer Local Districts

One of the most striking trends in local school district organization is the increasing concentration of the nation's total school enrollment in fewer and fewer local school districts. Evidence of this concentration is shown in Table 2, which gives the distribution of the number and enrollment of school districts by size categories for the fall of 1964, the latest time for which this information was available.

At that time only 146 school districts enrolled 25,000 or more pupils, but these 146 districts had 27.5 percent of all public school pupils. The three largest size groups of districts (all those above 6,000 enrollment) totaled 1,231; these 1,231 school districts had 55.6 percent of all public school pupils. A third of the total public school enrollment was in the next two size groups, districts enrolling 3,000 to 5,999 and 1,200 to 2,999 pupils. In 1964 there were 13,762 school districts that enrolled fewer than 300 pupils. While these districts constituted 52.9 percent of all operating districts, they contained only 2.3 percent of the total school enrollment.

A major cause of these trends is increasing urbanization. During the last decade 84 percent of the total population increase

of 28 million took place in the 212 metropolitan areas. Among the larger metropolitan areas almost all of the growth was in the suburbs. However, cities in the intermediate size range, between 10,000 and 100,000 population, generally increased in relative importance. Population on the farms decreased from 23 million in 1950 to about 12 million in 1965. Estimates indicate that by 1980 about 75 to 80 percent of our population may live in urban territory. This projects almost as many persons in urban territory in 1980 as there are in the entire United States today.

Reduction in Number of Local Districts

But as indicated earlier, school district reorganization has made sweeping changes in district structure, reducing the total number of districts from around 100,000 in 1945 to 23,461 in October 1966. Table 3 gives evidence of the twin effects of urban

TABLE 2

DISTRIBUTION OF LOCAL SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND ENROLLMENTS BY ENROLLMENT SIZE OF SYSTEM, FOR THE UNITED STATES, FALL 1964

Enrollment size	Number of systems	Percent	Enrollment	Percent
25,000 or more	146	.6%	11,044,000	27.5%
12,000-24,999	307	1.2	4,995,400	12.4
6,000-11,999	778	3.0	6,320,700	15.7
3,000-5,999	1,608	6.2	6,631,200	16.5
1,200-2,999	3,562	13.7	6,647,700	16.6
600-1,199	3,187	12.3	2,584,900	6.4
300-599	2,641	10.1	1,057,240	2.6
Operating systems with 300 or more pupils	12,229	47.1%	39,280,940	97.7%
Operating systems with less than 300 pupils	13,762	52.9%	936,275	2.3%
Total operating systems	25,991	100.0%	40,217,215	100.0%

Source: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, *Education Directory 1964-65, Part 2, Public School Systems.* Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1965. p. 4.

and district reorganization by comparing numbers of districts according to enrollment size groups for the years 1957 and 1965. During that eight-year period the number of school systems enrolling 25,000 or more pupils increased from 107 to 157, or 46.7 percent. The largest relative gain was in the 12,000 to 24,999 group—84.1 percent. It is significant that every size group above 1,200 enrollment increased in number while every size group below 1,200 decreased, and the smaller the size group the larger the decrease. In 1965, for the first time that records have been kept on the subject, the number of operating districts below 300 enrollment was less than half the total number of operating districts.

That redistricting has been widespread is indicated by the fact that since 1945 only six states (Florida, Hawaii, Louisiana, Maryland, Utah, and West Virginia) have not made changes in their organization of school districts. Six other states (Alabama, Connecticut, Massachusetts, New Jersey, Rhode Island, and Virginia) had more school districts in the fall of 1966 than they had in 1945. The remaining 38 states all had reductions: 26

TABLE 3

DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOL DISTRICTS BY ENROLLMENT SIZE, 1957 AND 1965

Enrollment size (Number of Pupils)	Number of School Districts		Change	
	1957	1965	Number	Percent
25,000 or more	107	157	50	46.7%
12,000 to 24,999	176	324	148	84.1
6,000 to 11,999	549	805	256	46.6
3,000 to 5,999	1,178	1,649	471	40.0
1,200 to 2,999	2,859	3,530	671	23.5
600 to 1,199	3,221	3,121	-100	- 3.1
300 to 599	4,013	3,260	-753	-18.8
1 to 299	32,097	11,690	-20,400	-63.6
All districts	44,200	24,536	-19,664	-44.5%

Sources: 1957 data from Bureau of the Census, U. S. Department of Commerce, *Public School Systems in 1960*. G-SS, No. 44. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1960. 1965 data from unpublished information compiled by Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D. C., Fall 1966.

TABLE 4.—RANK ORDER OF THE STATES BY PERCENT REDUCTION IN NUMBER OF SCHOOL DISTRICTS BETWEEN 1945-46 AND FALL 1966

State	Number of Districts		Reduction	
	1945-46	Fall 1966	Number	Percent
Mississippi	4,194	149	4,045	96.4%
Kansas	6,906	349	6,557	94.9
South Carolina	1,703	108	1,595	93.6
Nevada	237	17	220	92.8
Wisconsin	6,393	535	5,858	91.6
Colorado	1,871	183	1,688	90.2
Missouri	8,558	888	7,670	89.6
Idaho	1,114	117	997	89.5
Iowa	4,775	501	4,274	89.5
Illinois	9,861	1,340	8,521	86.4
Minnesota	7,657	1,324	6,333	82.7
Arkansas	2,179	398	1,781	81.7
New York	5,112	986	4,126	80.7
Michigan	4,572	930	3,642	79.6
Oklahoma	4,416	994	3,422	77.5
Pennsylvania	2,543	595	1,948	76.6
North Dakota	2,273	547	1,726	75.9
Oregon	1,607	390	1,217	75.7
Nebraska	6,987	2,388	4,599	65.8
Indiana	1,131	406	725	64.1
Texas	3,605	1,303	2,302	63.8
Delaware	126	51	75	59.5
Alaska	66	27	39	59.1
Ohio	1,622	712	910	56.1
California	2,629	1,187	1,442	54.8
Wyoming	361	173	188	52.1
Washington	691	360	331	47.9
South Dakota	3,415	2,015	1,400	41.0
Montana	1,382	873	509	36.8
Maine	500	342	158	31.6
Kentucky	256	200	56	21.9
New Hampshire	240	199	41	17.1
New Mexico	103	90	13	12.6
Arizona	338	298	40	11.8
Georgia	208	196	12	5.7
Vermont	269	262	7	2.6
North Carolina	171	169	2	1.2
Tennessee	152	151	1	.6
TOTALS	100,223	21,753	78,470	78.3%

Sources: Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1944-46, Statistics of State School Systems, 1945-46.* Washington, D. C. p. 32. 1966 data from unpublished information compiled by Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D. C., Fall 1966.

states reduced their numbers of districts by more than one-half, 18 by more than three-fourths, and 6 by more than 90 percent (Table 4).

Shortcomings of Reorganization Efforts

Despite all that has been accomplished it is still safe to conclude, as the National Commission on School District Reorganization concluded in 1948, that there are still too many school districts that are too small. Figure IV shows the widespread prevalence of districts having fewer than 1,200 pupils. Although 1964 data are shown, the general picture still holds except in Wisconsin, and most likely Kansas, where the situation has recently been changing rapidly. Even taking those recent changes into account it seems safe to make the generalization that in at least half of the states more than half of all districts have fewer than 1,200 pupils.

It might be added that most of these are states which have had active redistricting programs since 1945. Stated another way, very few of the states that have had active redistricting programs since 1945 have reduced their proportions of school districts under 1,200 enrollment to less than half the total number. Among the few states that succeeded were Nevada, Ohio, and Pennsylvania.

Further evidence of school redistricting tasks still ahead is indicated in Figure V, which shows the proportion of school districts that in 1964 operated both elementary and secondary schools, that is were unified school districts. There were only seven states in which all school districts were unified or operated both elementary and secondary schools. At the other extreme were 17 states, well scattered geographically, in which fewer than half the districts were unified. None of the states that have had school redistricting programs since 1945 has succeeded in merging all of its separately organized elementary districts into unified or 12-grade units.

As already implied, trends in school redistricting constitute a varied picture. Although positive features abound, there are also some minuses, rather large-scale ones, and we might mention those first.

Many of the reorganized districts established since World War II have been too small, constituting little more than a step in the right direction. A 1953 study showed that 552 reorganized dis-

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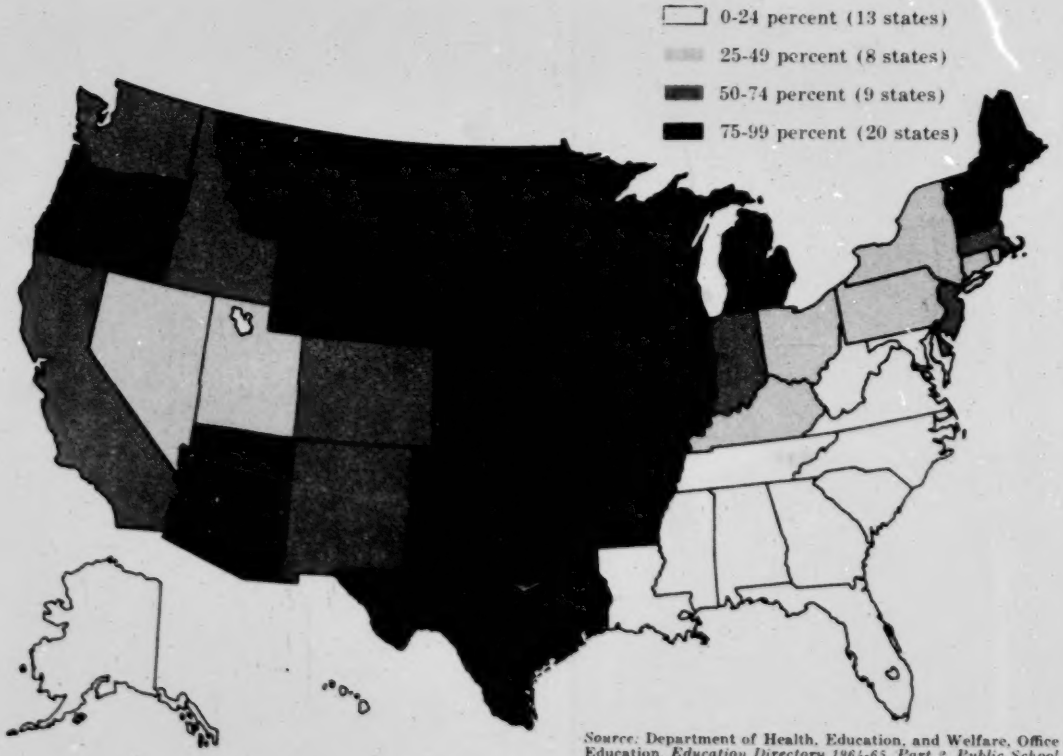

Source: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, *Education Directory 1964-65, Part 2, Public School Systems.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1965. p. 6.

FIGURE IV. PERCENT OF SCHOOL DISTRICTS HAVING FEWER THAN 1,200 PUPILS ENROLLED, FALL 1964

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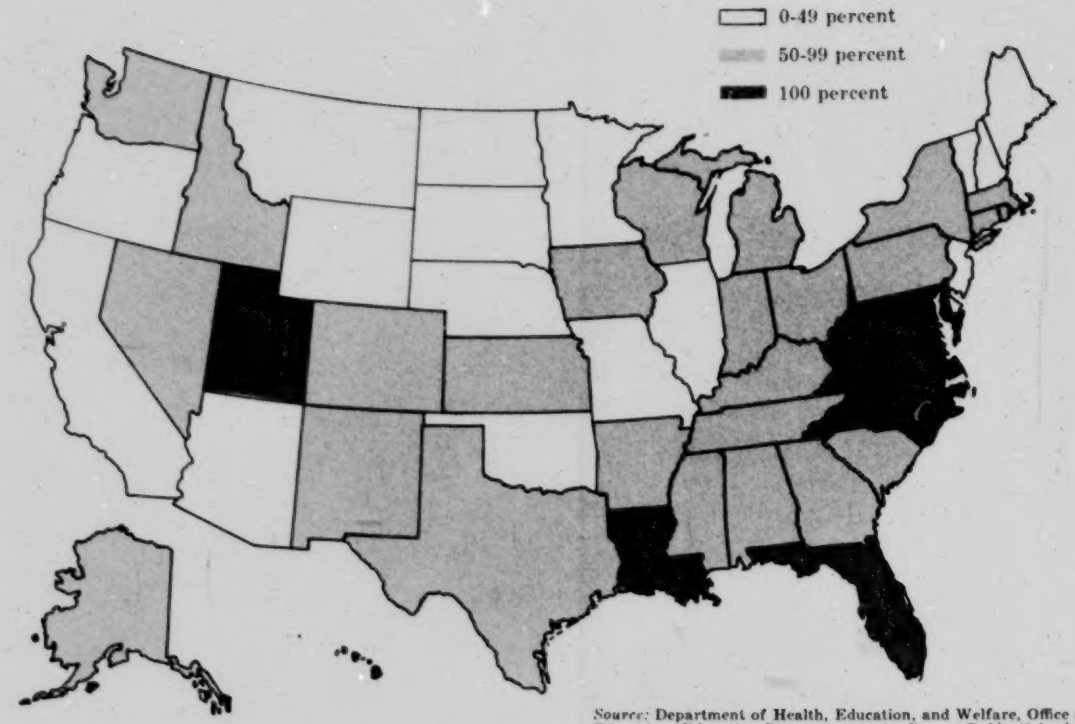

Source: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, *Education Directory 1964-65, Part 2, Public School Systems.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1965. p. 7.

FIGURE V. PERCENT OF SCHOOL DISTRICTS THAT OPERATED BOTH ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS, FALL 1964

tricts in eight states had a median pupil enrollment of 626 pupils, and 75 percent of these districts had enrollments under 1,037 pupils. Many involved mergers of open country elementary districts with the small hamlet or village district to which they had been sending their high school pupils on a tuition basis. Such reorganizations left untouched the problem of the small high school—its skeleton program, its high per pupil cost, its waste and inefficiencies in teacher utilization.

Without attempting to detail the shortcomings of small districts, several shortcomings are evident. One major weakness may be relevant: the wastage of teachers and other employees. As indicated in Table 5, the smaller the district the greater the number of teachers and other employees per 1,000 pupils. Another major weakness has been the widespread tendency of local people and local redistricting planning bodies to regard as the *optimum* for their particular situation the *minimum* standards for size of schools and school districts prescribed by state law or by state school board policy. A related third weakness has been the widespread failure to distinguish between small

TABLE 5

NUMBER OF FULL-TIME EQUIVALENT EMPLOYEES PER 1,000 PUPILS ENROLLED, BY SIZE OF SCHOOL SYSTEM: UNITED STATES, OCTOBER 1962

Size of School System	Teachers*	Other Employees	Total Employees
3,000 or more pupils	42.7	16.1	58.8
1,200 to 2,999 pupils	44.0	16.8	60.8
600 to 1,199 pupils	45.8	18.7	64.5
300 to 599 pupils	47.5	19.8	67.3
150 to 299 pupils	50.3	21.8	72.1
50 to 149 pupils	53.0	22.1	75.1
Less than 50 pupils	78.1	23.1	101.2
U. S. Average	43.7	16.7	60.4

*The summary term *teachers* has been used here to refer to all personnel reported by school systems as "instructional personnel," a category defined to include not only teachers but also principals, supervisors of instruction, school librarians, and guidance personnel, but not school superintendents or other administrative staff.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census, *Census of Governments, 1962: Compendium of Public Employment*, Vol. III. p. 499.

schools that because of isolation or population sparsity were necessary operating units and small schools that could be consolidated without creating undue inconvenience or hazards for the pupils. On the positive side, however, have been the actions of state boards of education in denying approval of small high schools for unnecessary operating units that could be consolidated.

Positive Trends in School Redistricting

Among the plus factors in the school redistricting picture are the following trends:

1. *Continued progress in eliminating nonoperating districts.* In October 1966 only 1,777 nonoperating districts remained, over half of them in South Dakota and Nebraska. There is a growing trend among states to eliminate nonoperating units by requiring their merger with operating units within a specified time limit.

2. *The requirement in an increasing number of states that all reorganized districts be unified, or organized to operate both elementary and high schools.*

3. *A related trend has been the requirement by a growing number of states that all territory of the state be in a district maintaining a high school.* States have had to put teeth into their redistricting laws to get rid of separately organized districts.

4. *The inclusion of more than one small high school district in a reorganized district.* This is the positive side of redistricting, directly aimed at eliminating unnecessary small high schools. This trend has been most pronounced in the past 10 years.

5. *The merging of previously established small reorganized units into enlarged reorganized units, in other words reorganizing the reorganizations.* This trend is helping to eliminate small reorganized districts established during the years before and immediately following World War II and, like the immediately preceding trend, has been gathering momentum during the past 10 years.

6. *The merger of small or medium-sized city districts with the open country districts surrounding them.* This has been a widely scattered trend, evidencing itself in New York State, New Mexico, and the Midwestern states. It typically results in districts having a relatively large area as well as a good-sized pupil enrollment.

7. *Merging all or nearly all of the districts within a county into a single administrative unit.* Nevada's mandatory redistricting program in 1955 resulted in 17 county units for the entire state. Other states, however, with permissive type programs have formed a sizable number of county unit systems or partial county units. In Mississippi 62 of the 149 school districts are the county unit type; 21 of South Carolina's 108 districts are county units; Colorado has 17 county units; Idaho has 14.

8. *The formation of large suburban districts adjoining major cities.* This trend has also been rather widespread. For example, the second largest school system in Colorado is the Jefferson County school system, a reorganized unit adjoining Denver, the largest district in the state. The third largest district in Nebraska is a reorganized suburban unit adjoining Omaha. In Washington the fourth, sixth, and seventh largest districts are reorganized units in the Seattle metropolitan area. Oregon's fourth and fifth largest districts are reorganized units in the Portland metropolitan area. The ninth, tenth, and eleventh largest districts in Missouri are reorganized units in the St. Louis metropolitan area. In California the San Juan unified district is almost as large as the Sacramento city district which it adjoins.

9. *The merger of independent city districts and adjoining county school districts constitutes a developing trend in the Southeast.* Among the most recent mergers of this type are the Charlotte and Mecklenburg County systems in North Carolina, and the Nashville and Davidson County systems in Tennessee. Similar mergers have been considered in other Southern cities, including Knoxville and Memphis, Tennessee, and Louisville, Kentucky.

10. *In county unit school districts, especially in the Southeast, the consolidation of small high schools has been a growing trend, particularly since the mid-1950's.* The school consolidation procedures used have been quite similar to the school district reorganization procedures used in other parts of the country.

11. *The formation of separately organized regional high school districts embracing the territory of several town (or township) school districts has been a developing trend in some of the New England states.* New Jersey has also established a number of regional units in recent years. There also appears to be a slightly developing trend to convert separately organized regional high school districts into K-12 units by merging them with their underlying elementary districts.

Variations in Reorganization Outcomes

Current trends would indicate that even after much further redistricting progress there will still remain wide variations in local district organization. It would be hard to conceive otherwise, with the tremendous variations in population distribution ranging from the vast concentrations of people in metropolitan areas to the extremes of population sparsity characteristic of large areas of the country. These variations are so great that without concrete illustration it is difficult to fully appreciate their magnitude. For example, the Arlington County, Virginia, school district, with an area of 24 square miles, has 26,900 pupils, an average of over 1,100 pupils per square mile. By contrast, the county unit school system of Nye County, Nevada, is over 18,000 square miles in area and has 1,000 pupils enrolled, an average of one pupil for every 18 square miles. The entire state of Nevada has about the same number of pupils in its schools as the single school district of Montgomery County, Maryland.

With the variations in population and other factors that must be taken into account, we know that there must necessarily be wide variations in local district organization. It seems equally apparent that after even much further progress in district organization, structural adaptations will still be necessary to compensate for size characteristics of districts. This holds true not only for the smaller districts but also the larger size categories.

Decentralization of Administration in Large Cities

To overcome the disadvantages of "bigness," a number of the largest school systems in the country have undertaken to decentralize their administration. Some have decentralized for elementary school administration only. In St. Louis, for example, the system is divided into five elementary districts each under the administration of an assistant superintendent.

Others have decentralized the administration of both elementary and secondary schools. Among such systems are Chicago, Detroit, and Atlanta. The city of Chicago has been divided into 20 districts averaging around 30,000 pupils, with each district headed by an assistant superintendent responsible for the entire K-12 educational program. The city of Atlanta is divided into five areas with about 30 schools in each. Each area has an area superintendent with a staff of 10: resource people in subject fields, a librarian, a visiting counselor, and a psychometrist. Of

the five area staffs, three are housed in school buildings, while two have their separate offices in their areas. The Montgomery County, Maryland, school system, enrolling 105,000 pupils, has been decentralized into 16 areas each including at least one senior high school and the satellite junior high and elementary schools.

Of the large systems that have undertaken decentralization, only one, New York City, has developed a plan providing for decentralizing both administration and policy development activities. The city's system is divided into 31 districts each having an average of 30 schools and approximately 35,000 pupils. Each district has a local board of education consisting of five members chosen by the city board of education from lists of persons recommended by local civic groups in the district. The local boards receive suggestions and complaints regarding operation of the schools, visit the schools periodically, hold public meetings to get local views on school matters, and make recommendations on school needs to the central board of education. Each district has a district superintendent directly responsible to the executive deputy superintendent. The district superintendent has a staff of 15 to assist him in carrying out his functions and responsibilities for operation of the schools under his jurisdiction. According to official pronouncements of the superintendent's office, the central headquarters staff operates under the stated objective, "to function more and more as a service agency for the school districts." Thus, it is significant that the nation's largest local school system has adopted a decentralization objective thoroughly in keeping with objectives of well organized intermediate districts.

INTERMEDIATE UNIT DEVELOPMENTS

As pointed out earlier, 32 states currently have a three-echelon structure of school government in which some form of intermediate administrative agency, most commonly a county intermediate district structure, functions between the state education agency and the local school districts.

Although usually classified as intermediate units, the New England supervisory unions constitute a special case and will not be included in the following analysis of trends. These unions exist in all the New England states except Rhode Island, which eliminated its last one a few years ago, and are composed of two or more town school districts grouped together for purposes of

sharing the services of a superintendent of schools. It may be worth noting that the same basic principle is used in some sections of Virginia which, although generally classified as having a two-echelon structure, has eight superintendents, each of whom serves two county school districts, and two others each of whom serves a county and a city school district.

It is among the three-echelon states outside New England that the major changes have come in intermediate district organization since the mid-1940's. At that time there were 28 such states and all except New York had a statewide pattern of county intermediate districts. In 20 states the county superintendent of schools was, with a few exceptions in three states, elected to office by popular vote. This selection method is still used in 16 of them. Eleven states had county intermediate district boards of education.

Weakening of County Intermediate Administrative Units

In nearly all of the 32 states intermediate district organization and functions were strongly affected by local school district reorganization and by the socioeconomic and educational needs that made local redistricting necessary. The impact was generally most severe in predominantly rural counties, typically with their open country territory overlaid with one-room-school districts. The newly formed districts, though often too small to mount well rounded programs, were nevertheless large enough to provide for themselves most, and in some cases practically all, of the supervisory and related services that the county intermediate unit as then organized and staffed had been furnishing. The ultimate effect came in those counties, not all of which were predominantly rural, where all local districts were reorganized into single countywide districts.

The responses by states to the impact of local redistricting have varied widely. Idaho in the 1950's enacted a law providing for dissolution of the intermediate unit when local redistricting was completed in a county and has since eliminated all intermediate units in the state. Several other states have eliminated intermediate districts in most of their counties: Mississippi in 71 of its 82 counties; South Carolina in 24 of its 46 counties; and Indiana in 70 of its 93 counties. Minnesota and Missouri both have permissive legislation which has been used to eliminate

the county superintendency in several counties. In Colorado last November the people voted under permissive legislation to abolish the county superintendency in 35 of the state's 63 counties, but as will be noted later a new form of intermediate structure is being developed.

Service Units in Urban and Suburban Counties

Elsewhere among the three-echelon states one of the most significant trends has been the development of intermediate district programs in the suburban counties in metropolitan areas. In a number of states these large intermediate units, with their mushrooming suburban communities served by good-sized local districts, have been pacesetters in demonstrating what can be accomplished.

This has not been simply a matter of serving small local districts until they become large enough, either through population increase or reorganization, to be more self-sufficient. For example, in the Philadelphia metropolitan area the Bucks County intermediate unit is currently serving 13 local districts enrolling approximately 82,000 pupils. The Oakland County, Michigan, intermediate unit provides services to 29 local districts with a total enrollment of nearly 250,000. In the Buffalo, New York, metropolitan area the Erie County intermediate unit, with a professional staff numbering over 250, is providing a broad array of supplementary and supporting services to 19 local districts ranging in size from 2,000 to 8,000 pupils and having a combined enrollment of more than 80,000. The San Diego County, California, intermediate district, with a total operating budget of nearly $2.7 million in 1967, provides an exceptionally broad program ranging from production of instructional resources to data processing for 51 school districts, including San Diego city, with a combined enrollment exceeding 290,000 pupils.

It is significant that the rapidly increasing size of suburban local districts, rather than resulting in an overall reduction in intermediate unit strength, has been accompanied by a marked expansion and higher degree of specialization in intermediate district functions and services. Illustrative of this trend are new or expanded programs in such fields as data processing, instructional materials centers, and special programs for physically and mentally handicapped children.

Reorganized Intermediate Service Agencies

In regions outside of metropolitan areas basic improvement of the programs of traditional intermediate units is dependent upon restructuring them to make them large enough to function effectively as educational service agencies. In recent years there has emerged a significant trend in intermediate district restructuring.

Wisconsin, which since 1947 has reduced its local districts from over 6,000 to 570, in 1965 abolished its 72 county intermediate districts and replaced them with 19 new Cooperative Educational Service Agencies. Each agency has an 11-member lay board of education elected by the board members of the local districts in the service area. The agency board appoints the administrator. Agency boundary lines do not generally conform to county boundaries (Figure VI). The pupil enrollment ranges from 18,000 to 203,000 pupils; 5 of the 19 agencies have over 50,000 pupils. A major handicap is the lack of taxing power and the small amount of state subsidy, $29,000 per year, with the result that heavy dependence must be placed on local district funding of the services.

Michigan in 1962 enacted legislation requiring consolidation of county intermediate districts with a school membership of fewer than 5,000 pupils. As a result of this legislation, 37 of the state's 83 county intermediate units have been involved in 14 multi-county consolidations: eight two-county; four three-county; one four-county; and one five-county.

Nebraska in 1965 enacted legislation creating 19 new multi-county educational service units covering the entire state. The educational service unit board consists of one member from each county in the unit plus four members at large. The unit board is empowered to appoint an administrator and to employ staff members; it is also empowered to levy a one-mill property tax. The law included a provision whereby citizens could vote on excluding their county from membership in the service unit; 19 counties were excluded, but 11 of the service units were left intact. Although the law created a new pattern of intermediate units, no provision was made for abolishment of the county intermediate superintendency.*

*For a complete discussion of developments in Nebraska see page 55.

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Source: State Department of Public Instruction, Madison, Wisconsin.

FIGURE VI. NINETEEN AREA PLAN[2] ADOPTED BY THE STATE COOPERATIVE EDUCATIONAL SERVICE COMMITTEE, WISCONSIN

Washington in 1965 enacted legislation requiring the State Board of Education to develop a statewide plan of enlarged intermediate units and prescribing adoption of the new units by vote of the local district boards in the counties involved in each proposal. In January 1966 the State Board adopted a plan of 15 new intermediate districts. By November 1966 five new intermediate units had been created. Elections in six others had failed, in most instances because of adverse votes by one county or by adverse votes of sparsely populated counties. The Legislative Interim Committee on Education has recommended that the proposed enlarged units recommended by the State Board of Education be established by law, that intermediate boards be empowered to appoint an intermediate superintendent, and that the provision be made for a more effective method of financing intermediate district programs.

Colorado, as earlier indicated, in 1965 enacted legislation authorizing county referendums on the question of abolishing the county superintendency, and the same year enacted a new law authorizing local districts to organize boards of cooperative services for purposes of performing contracted services cooperatively for their constituent local districts or for supplementing their fiscal, administrative, or educational functions. A board of cooperative services may be created by vote of interested local district boards assembled in a special meeting. The cooperative board may have five to nine members but if more than nine local districts are involved each shall have one member. Cooperative services are financed by participating local districts. As of March 1967, 11 boards of cooperative services had been formed involving 75 of the 183 districts in the state. Two of the most recently established cooperative boards are in the Denver metropolitan area; one of these includes eight suburban districts with a combined enrollment of 40,000 pupils, and the other includes five suburban districts with 45,000 pupils. Another, located in a farming area in the southern part of the state, is composed of 15 local districts in six counties; this cooperative board has been granted funds under Title III of ESEA for planning a summer school camp to serve the gifted, retarded, and educationally and culturally deprived children in its service area.

In some states the complexity and urgency of restructuring intermediate districts are influenced by developments in area vocational school organization and in some instances by com-

munity college organization. Iowa in 1964 enacted legislation providing for a statewide pattern of merged areas, subject to approval by the State Board of Education, for establishment of area vocational schools or community colleges. By September 1966 the State Board had approved 15 merged areas, 10 of which were designated for community college and 5 for area vocational school purposes; the 10 community colleges will also offer vocational-technical programs. A proposed sixteenth merged area had been sent back for modification, and all except 7 of the state's 99 counties had been included in the statewide plan. Area boards, consisting of five to nine members elected by popular vote, are empowered to levy a three-fourths-mill tax for operation of programs; with approval of the voters, an additional three-fourths-mill tax may be levied for facilities, or bonds may be issued for that purpose. State subsidy is provided for program operation and construction of buildings.

Iowa also has legislation permitting county boards of education to merge two or more adjacent county intermediate districts subject to approval by the State Board. The joint county intermediate unit is governed by an elected seven-member board with power to tax and to appoint its superintendent (county intermediate boards have been so empowered since 1947). The State Board has adopted the policy of limiting its approval to county intermediate district mergers whose areas will conform to the merged areas established for area vocational schools or community colleges. In July 1966 two counties merged to form the first multicounty intermediate district in the state. Two additional mergers—one a two-county and the other a four-county merger—have since been approved and will go into operation in July 1967. Another seven-county area is engaged in a planning project, funded under Title III of ESEA to determine appropriate functions and services of a multicounty intermediate district.

New York State has been consolidating its intermediate districts over the years and currently has a statewide network of 69 Boards of Cooperative Educational Services. Fifty-one cooperative boards are currently providing vocational programs, some of which are quite limited and others quite extensive. A major handicap has been the lack of authority to construct facilities. Legislation is currently under consideration which would replace the present arrangement with a statewide system of enlarged area centers of cooperative educational services whose

boards would be empowered to construct facilities for area vocational school and other programs and to provide broadly expanded service programs, including educational TV, part-time programs for out-of-school youth, adult education, experimental programs, and transportation for pupil participants in area center programs. Area center boards would also be empowered to enter into contracts with community colleges, which are under the state system of higher education, or other public agencies in relation to its area service programs. No program or service could be provided which a local school district could reasonably be expected to furnish.

Several other states have plans under consideration for restructuring their intermediate districts. At the direction of the legislature the Pennsylvania State Board of Education has developed a statewide plan which calls for replacing the 66 county intermediate districts with 25 new intermediate units, with an approximate pupil population range of 30,000 to 300,000. The new units would have broadly expanded service functions financed by the state and local districts.

In Ohio a statewide study of school district organization made at the direction of the state legislature has recommended, in addition to reorganization of local districts, replacement of the existing 88 county intermediate districts with a new intermediate pattern of area education districts, having a minimum pupil population of 35,000, to administer programs and services which could not be provided effectively by the local districts.

In Oregon legislation is under consideration which would facilitate consolidation of county intermediate districts, many of which have small pupil populations. Some are already participating in multicounty cooperative service programs. For example, 13 of the 33 county intermediate districts are currently administering projects funded under ESEA Title III. At least five of these projects are multicounty or regional.

CONCLUSION

The years since 1945 constitute what is probably the most significant and certainly the most active period of our history in restructuring the administrative agencies of public school government. The rapid societal changes and expanding educational needs that gave rise to this widespread movement show no signs of slackening, and we can expect continued emphasis on strengthening the structures of our state systems of education.

Abstracted Separately as
ED 016556

INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL DISTRICT

Middle Echelon of a Three-Echelon State System of Schools

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William J. Emerson

THIS PAPER deals with the intermediate school district as it exists and as it is being reconfigurated in the State of Michigan. Its corporate structure and institutional behavior at present will be described, and conjecture will be offered as to its future in terms of the efficiency and utility it can bring to the operation of Michigan's state system of schools. To the extent that the operation of modern schools involves specialization, and a high degree of competence within specialties, the potential of the intermediate district as an important team member in the appropriate handling of educational matters will be illustrated.

DEFINITION

The *intermediate school district* is the middle echelon of a state system of schools made up of a state education office, numerous local school districts (public corporations), and less numerous intermediate school districts (also public corporations). In Michigan it is known legally as an Intermediate School District. In other states—Pennsylvania, Illinois, Iowa, California—it is known as a county school district. New York State calls it a board of cooperative educational services.

All intermediate school districts have a constituency; that is, they are made up of a number of local school districts. In some states, Iowa for instance, the constituency consists of all local districts in a county. In other states, like Ohio, the constituency is made up of all local school districts in a county except that certain districts, the larger ones, may have become separate from the constituency.

The cooperative services board in New York has a different kind of constituency arrangement. Its constituency may be made

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up of the local districts in either more or less than one county but each local district may choose to participate or not as a constituent in some of the cooperative services board operations.

Michigan's arrangement provides that the constituency of the intermediate district be made up of all (no exceptions) of the local school districts in a county or, in sparsely settled parts, all local districts in two or more counties or parts of counties. Usually intermediate district boundaries are made up of the boundaries of constituent districts, not county boundaries.

HISTORY

Intermediate school districts, in those states that have them, were until recently creatures of another age. They, or their predecessors, the county superintendent or commissioner, came into being to assist state school officials in operating a system of schools dedicated primarily to offering elementary instruction. In those days, 1830 to 1920, a state superintendent did not have the transportation or communication facilities to ensure that his thousands of elementary school districts were even in operation at any one time, let alone having assurance that the crude regulations of those days were being observed. His answer in those times was an inspector-in-residence—a regional official, some eyes and ears with a horse and buggy.

As long as the chief public objective in education was elementary education, this three-echelon team—the state superintendent, the county commissioner, the one-room-school teacher—proved workable.

At this point a rule of thumb is interjected for possible later use: *The configuration of government and the operating arrangements within it have, or ought to have, a direct relationship to the public purpose which justifies their existence.*

REORGANIZATION

For over sixty years attempts have been made to restructure state systems of schools. All are aware of the reason: The leading public purpose of education has become a high school education; primary education structure will not suffice.

The consolidation of primary schools has proceeded with difficulty. In but few states has restructuring even yet produced uniformly adequate K-12 districts. In the interim, three kinds of things have been happening to county school offices. (1) In

a few southern states all local districts have been abolished and the county school district survives as an operating unit. (2) In a few midwestern and western states the office has withered on the vine. (3) In many states the former commissioner, particularly in metropolitan areas, has given way to a county school district which performs specialized functions on behalf of its constituency.

CHANGING PUBLIC PURPOSES

In the past twenty years the public purposes supporting elementary and secondary education have changed. The common high school no longer proves adequately serviceable. Some educational imperatives now readily identified are these:

1. Some children should receive more instructional attention than others in their K-12 careers.
2. Many children should receive different kinds of instructional attention than others in their K-12 careers.
3. Some children should receive highly specialized kinds of instructional attention in their K-12 careers.
4. Most children should receive instruction in the most recently developed subject matter taught in the most modern manner with the latest instructional materials.
5. All faculty members periodically and some faculty members continuously require developmental and technical help in their professional operations.
6. All school operations require systematic study and operational evaluation.
7. All school operations require access to efficient and economical data processing and business operations systems.
8. All state systems are being required to ensure that these imperatives apply *in some normative fashion* across the geography of the state.

These observations suggest that the three-echelon system of state school organization as we have commonly known it, and the two-echelon system as well in some places, is not adequately constituted to meet these public purposes. Some adaptation, some reconfiguration of structure and function, is required.

METHODS OF RECONFIGURATION

One might be tempted at this juncture to reach into the past, select as a method of problem solving the consolidation of one-

room-school districts, and come up with vastly enlarged local school district operations designed to react to the imperatives outlined above. This might be a mistake. Certain of these imperatives tend to lend themselves to moderation rather than to largeness in corporate design.

Suffice it to say that all are more than well acquainted with the limitations and shortcomings of smallness in corporate organization. This is simply to say that corporate largeness may have some weaknesses of its own which may prove at least as detrimental as smallness in carrying out the public purposes of education.[1]

Michigan's commitment to reorganization of local districts and consolidation of intermediate districts promises to produce the most comprehensive and adaptable state system of schools in the country.

CRITERIA FOR RECONFIGURATION

The times now require a restructuring of state systems of schools with a greater degree of immediacy than ever before. Perhaps at long last this time around, reorganization will have some reasonable characteristics that it has not always enjoyed. Certain of these are suggested as follows:

1. Instead of concentrating state efforts on simply doing away with country schools or some other troublesome element, the effort will involve all echelons[2] and elements[3] of the state system.
2. Although the restructuring will rest in large part upon the historical corporate development of the state system, the general tendency will not be only to create larger and larger corporations in the name of operational efficiency, since it is apparent that in some instances the criterion of size has already been overmet.
3. The reconstitution of systems will tend to concentrate less on corporate structure and more on the allocation of governmental function and upon the relationships that exist among the several echelons and elements of the system. It is suggested here that the imperatives of the situation

[1] Note the efforts of New York, Chicago, Detroit, and others to decentralize, and in some instances break up, extremely large corporations.

[2] Echelon: a position in an order of things. In this instance state-intermediate-local school districts.

[3] Elements: the identities making up the echelons.

require a systems approach[1] to an appropriate solution.

4. The restructured system will give more attention to financial relationships, taxation responsibilities, and economic effects than those previously recognized.
5. It is suggested, finally, that the situation requires not only the creation of strong local corporations—strong all over the state—and strong intermediate districts—strong all over the state—but a strong and effective state school office as well.

At this point a second rule of thumb is interjected for possible future use: *The configuration of specialized government to afford appropriate response to modern public educational purposes will or ought to be treated systematically to produce strong and effective elements and echelons of the system within the total geography of the state.*

The words *systematic approach* imply the existence of a system and the possibility of using it for productive ends. Applied to education in Michigan, a systematic approach to the solution of educational problems implies that the whole educational task to be done in the state be programed meticulously; staffed, equipped, and housed adequately; and operated appropriately in all of its parts. Such an approach tends to produce efficiency, economy, responsibility, integration of effort. The organizational structure and management of the system must contemplate and encourage such behavior.

Examples of the pieces of the educational job to be done in Michigan are these:

1. Operation of sound developmental programs of elementary instruction.
2. Operation of sound, comprehensive secondary schools.
3. Operation of appropriate secondary vocational programs.
4. Operation of mature special education programs.
5. Operation of educational diagnostic and remediation clinics or centers.
6. Operation of common as well as highly specialized instructional materials centers.
7. Operation of well developed staff development and inservice education programs for both professional and nonprofessional personnel.

[1] System: a complex unity formed of many often diverse parts subject to a common plan or serving a common purpose.

8. Operation of systematic studies and educational evaluation programs.
9. Operation of bulk purchasing and standardized quality control programs.
10. Operation of compatible, efficient, and sophisticated data processing systems.

ALLOCATION OF FUNCTION

If one is to deal systematically with these and other functions, one is forced to inquire where they fit best in his system and what criteria he is to use in deciding best fit.

Choices open to school government in reconstituting its structure are not as numerous as those open to certain other kinds of corporations. Clients of the school live all over the geography. A state may not, for one purpose or another, concentrate all its educational operations on the lawn of the state capitol. States may not take the position that all those branches not making a profit will close down. Nor can a state insist that because there are only a few customers in a neighborhood for speech correction, those needing it will have to get it by mail order from a catalog.

The best that school government can do in most states is to take the political arrangements—in Michigan a three-echelon system—and allocate among the echelons specific, definable parts of the total educational job to be done, ensuring that each element has the corporate ability to do the work and ensuring that the necessary interrelationships within the state system receive the necessary attention.

A rule of thumb is suggested for the allocation of educational functions in a multi-echelon system: *Allocate the function to that echelon of the system closest to the student, where it may be carried out with completeness, equity, efficiency, and responsibility. In testing for fit, try the closest echelon first.*

Completeness: The job is to be done according to professional standards. Its benefits are reasonably accessible to all.

Equity: Benefits of the function are available as a matter of right. Costs are borne by taxes on the constituency represented by the student who is benefitted.

Efficiency: The people and materiel devoted to the function are sufficient to do a professional job. Such commitments are used to capacity throughout the school year.

Responsibility: The function is ultimately controlled by popularly chosen boards representing the constituency served by the function.

INTERMEDIATE DISTRICT PROGRAMING

The institutional behavior of the 60 intermediate districts in Michigan has been fairly similar, at least in the direction of their evolution. Suburban or metropolitan districts have moved with greater speed than have more rural districts, but all are moving along lines which have produced and are producing the following:

1. Intermediate-district-wide programs of special education —mature, complete, sophisticated, serviceable.
2. Intermediate-district-wide programs of staff and curriculum development in the academic disciplines served by Ph.D. specialists.
3. Intermediate-district-operated educational, diagnostic, and remediation centers. They include speech pathology and correction, audiology and language development, reading, psychometrics, educational guidance, social work, and vocational rehabilitation.
4. Intermediate-district-wide educational research operations and systematic studies resources.
5. Intermediate-district-wide testing services including a central lending library of tests, scoring and computing services, and reporting and interpretation services.
6. Intermediate-district-wide cooperative purchasing and quality control programs to acquire such items as foods, paper stock, standard items of machinery, fuel, and bus fleets.
7. Intermediate-district-wide staff development programs for cooks, bus drivers, office staffs, and maintenance personnel.
8. Intermediate-district-operated instructional materials centers.
9. Intermediate-district-wide data processing systems employing second and third generation computers, random access magnetic storage and, in a few months, teleprocessing.
10. Intermediate-district-wide public information service directed partly to news media and partly to the profession.

11. Intermediate-district-operated law enforcement functions performed on behalf of the state education department.
12. Intermediate-district-wide programs of vocational education.

It is apparent from the foregoing examples that the rules of of thumb cited above have had a profound influence on the institutional behavior of many intermediate districts in Michigan. Their operational configuration and product mix support this observation.

PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

Twenty years ago many of these specialized operations were performed perfunctorily or not at all in schools. Some attention might be given to the dynamics of these program developments.

In Michigan, as in other states, the product mix of intermediate districts twenty years ago was smaller and much simpler than it is today. Over the years, as public purposes changed, as reconstitution of local school corporations occurred, and as demands on the intermediate district became more and more specialized and exacting, the intermediate district responded by spinning off old functions and accepting new ones. By and large, spin-offs have occurred as local district structure has become strong enough to assume them. In those places where intermediate districts are most serviceable they are lean and hard for this very reason.

Perhaps another rule of thumb could be entered on this account: *To keep a state system in peak efficiency avoid empire building; re-evaluate and re-allocate the functions to be performed on a periodic basis.* Corollary: *It is possible and appropriate to re-allocate a function in one part of a state system and may be impossible and inappropriate to re-allocate that function in another part of the system at the same point in time.* As an operational concept the corollary *is more powerful* than the rule.

CORPORATE ARRANGEMENTS

In those places in the United States where intermediate districts are most serviceable, certain corporate arrangements and interrelationships among the parts of the state system appear to exist. Highly successful intermediate districts can be found in many states having different laws and different corporate

structures, but in all successful situations at least some of the following arrangements apply:

1. The product mix of the intermediate district rests to a greater rather than a lesser extent on permissive legislation.
2. The degree of use of the product mix by the constituency is left largely to the choice of local school administration. (Law enforcement is an exception—but only a small one.)
3. The intermediate district staff is selected and governed by a board popularly selected by the constituency.
4. There is some minimum taxing power exercised unilaterally by the intermediate district board.
5. There is some state aid for intermediate districts which issues with appropriate limitations from the state school office.
6. There are statutory arrangements for intermedite district housing to be acquired and held as intermediate district property.
7. There are statutory arrangements for the review of intermediate district programs by the constituents as well as the state school office.

Of the 36 states having three-echelon systems, Michigan is the only one possessing all seven of the characteristics.

Perhaps from this another rule of thumb can be pronounced: *The establishment of successful intermediate district structure is not to be treated casually. Cooperation, necessary as it is, is not enough. Those regular corporate trappings of a statutory nature to be found in the case of other echelons of the state system are necessary in this instance as well.*

SECOND-ECHELON ADVANTAGES

Probably the greatest power for good offered by a state system composed of more than one echelon of corporate structure is responsive flexibility. Certainly any state system provides some reasonable means of implementing general, statewide objectives. State aid acts, department of education rulings, and statutory law all provide for this. But it is more difficult to ensure that the system accommodates more localized objectives and adaptations, particularly in these times when certain of them are expensive, highly specialized, and technical. In Mich-

igan the intermediate school district is proving to be a most useful tool to this end.

Another beneficial attribute of the second echelon is that of equalization in its constituency. The product mix of the intermediate district is equally available to all, if they want it, regardless of local school district size or wealth. It has not been Michigan's experience that the establishment of strong intermediate districts has hindered the appropriate consolidation of local districts. Quite the reverse has been true. Strong intermediate districts tend to foster stronger and more equal constituent districts.

The equalization benefit of the second echelon can be made to apply on a statewide basis as well. If the state system provides for appropriate second-echelon geographic arrangements —large geographic constituencies in sparsely populated areas, smaller constituencies in the more densely populated area—then enough operational efficiency can be demonstrated in this echelon to encourage legislatures to commit extra subventions to the hinterlands so that some *normative standards* of programing can be observed statewide. In Michigan this is proving to be a strong and effective equalizer as far as highly specialized services and functions (e.g. special education) are concerned.

Probably a third advantage to having a strong second echelon in Michigan has to do with administrative span. Michigan has many local school districts. Even if they are 100 percent consolidated according to plan, these corporations will be so numerous that communications and operations will break down between state and local levels. The intermediate district provides the state education office a reasonable administrative span.

SYSTEMATIC APPROACHES

Although for many years responsible Michigan school officials have given attention to certain features of the state school system as *discrete problems* or *discrete problem areas*, insufficient attention has been given to the system as a system. This shortcoming need no longer apply. The existence of the new State Board of Education, the new intermediate district, and the reorganization of K-12 districts should encourage more systematic views of the state system.

Not yet have intermediate district and state education office personnel explored or made sufficient use of the valuable and

serviceable corporate relationship that is encouraged by law.

Certainly many intermediate districts have not taken full advantage of those sections of the law that permit their further consolidation. Michigan presently has 60 intermediate districts made up of the former 83. But Michigan should probably have no more than 30 such districts.

Many intermediate districts have not taken advantage of relationships with local constituencies as provided by law. In some instances this is due to shortage of funds, but in other instances it results from a lack of understanding of the system and the statutory arrangements that have established it.

It is suggested that Michigan's state system has a tremendous amount of statutory muscle that has yet to be put to proper use and that but few statutory changes need be made to upgrade the whole system substantially.

Some recommendations, therefore, can be made that should be implemented statutorily or operationally, whichever is appropriate:

1. The statute should require the further consolidation of intermediate school districts. The State Board of Education should be made responsible for this reorganization, and its findings should be made final, as is now proposed in the State of Pennsylvania. Probably no more than 30 intermediate districts should be continued in the state.
2. In metropolitan areas intermediate districts should be established wherever 100,000 children of school age are found in residence. In more sparsely populated sections of the state intermediate districts should be defined so that driving time from a constituent district to the intermediate district office does not exceed one hour. The creation of new intermediate districts having substantially more than 100,000 student population should not be encouraged.
3. The state department of education has the statutory power to review and pass upon line items of the intermediate district budget. State officials do this, but only after a ministerial fashion. It should be done in some ways that would tend to encourage better programing and discourage poorer programing in intermediate districts. The state should review its position in this.

4. The statutory standards for the intermediate district superintendency, requiring only four years of experience as a teacher, and a master's degree, are too low. The state department of education school office should ensure that the regulations are changed. A doctorate or its equivalent should be encouraged.
5. Neither the state school office nor the colleges and universities of Michigan have made any concerted attempt to guide and support intermediate district boards in the filling of intermediate district superintendencies. Intermediate district boards deserve all of the creative support they can get to staff these important positions.
6. The State Board of Education presides over the handling of a number of special programs subsidized by the state aid act. These special programs all operate under rules which provide for some rather low qualifications for subsidized practitioners. Employees of intermediate district offices should be exempt in some cases from these low qualifications and *higher qualifications* should be substituted.
7. The statute should be amended so that intermediate districts in some unusual instances can cooperate on a regular, long-range basis for shared programing. In metropolitan regions this might be metropolitan data processing. In sparsely settled regions it might be the operation of a sophisticated speech and hearing center.
8. To ensure more equality in the affording of special services across the geography of the state, the state aid act should be amended to contemplate intermediate district funding of sparsely populated areas under an entirely different formula from that which funds such districts in metropolitan Michigan. More money should go to rural Michigan.
9. In spite of serious efforts on the part of all, there is not sufficient communication between the department of education and intermediate district offices. It is recommended that the state department of education staff be reconfigurated to contemplate regular, daily business operations between the top and middle echelons of the state system. The state committee system should be reprogramed, as well.

10. Statutory provisions for the popular election of intermediate district boards should be enacted.

Michigan's state system of schools has a brilliant future. This future will be attained not only by statutory or administrative fiat, but will be attained by an understanding of the system and what this produces in the way of action. To this end another rule of thumb is suggested for application in the case of Michigan's state system: *A state system of schools is only as good as the elements in each of its echelons.* One echelon is not "over" another, either commandwise or statuswise. Each performs its own logically assigned and assumed tasks in an excellent manner. The statutes are "over" each and all of them.

TEAM IMPLICATIONS

Mature intermediate districts are constituted on a horizontal team basis to operate within their constituencies. The clinical team, the team of Ph.D. instructional specialists, the research team, the special education team, and the data processing team—all are staffed with highly specialized and highly qualified people, all are available to attack specialized tasks within their constituency. They are effective. Their services are in demand.

To the extent that Michigan reorganizes its second echelon, this team approach can be made available in all parts of the state for doing regional educational good.

Only Michigan and Nebraska have taken the basic legislative steps to this end. Iowa, Pennsylvania, Washington, California, and others are working in this direction.

Vertically, universally strong middle-echelon districts can contribute to a strong state team in Michigan. Their position on the team encourages flexibility and local adaptation. Vertical teamwork can handle big problems quickly—for instance, the handling of the titles of PL 89-10, computer input preparation, special education. Intermediate districts provide a method for implementing statewide objectives. They are great equalizers. They ameliorate the state problem of administrative span, and all-together help bind the system into an operating whole.

Some Thoughts on a Model of

STATE SCHOOL SYSTEM DESIGN

William P. McLure

I WANT to discuss some of the considerations of school system design which require public understanding, social consensus, and appropriate action of government to improve the existing organization for education and to keep it as dynamic as possible under changing social conditions.

Purpose is antecedent to design of a state school system. Design or structure follows purpose and is dependent upon the purpose to be achieved. There are two other basic requirements: design must be sufficiently dynamic to adjust and change as purpose changes, and it must have capacity to achieve. Capacity includes physical resources such as financial support to obtain adequate personnel and facilities. Capacity also includes conditions for the human factor to operate creatively, productively, and socially in terms of satisfactory norms of personal interaction. Also the educational system must relate to the larger society for interaction and general control within the framework of social values of this nation.

PURPOSE

There are some changes in our society that affect the purposes of education, changes such as those in occupational structure, urbanization, mobility, transportation, cultural values and aims, and world consciousness. Educational purposes are derived from the aims of society and the image of ideal social conditions.

The purpose of education today includes an expanded clientele as compared with a generation ago. Formal education of some type must be operated for children younger than the traditional six-year age. In recent years there has been increasing evidence from experimental programs (not just to mention the head start programs) that points to great advantages in introducing young children to some kind of formal educational experience at a much earlier age than has generally been done in the past. Thus, the school system may provide family service to many

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homes during the prenatal period and some type of formal schooling to introduce the child to appropriate groups and social experiences at an early age.

The clientele of the traditional high school age group is being rapidly extended on a mass scale to post high school education. The junior college level of higher education is now receiving dramatic attention, and adult continuing education includes another clientele which may increase very rapidly in the future. High school dropouts are another group to be included for special attention.

A proper consideration of the needs of all these groups leads to a wide diversity in breadth of program and supportive services and to complexity in administrative and governmental structures for the operation of these programs.

Higher education is becoming more complex partly because of its purpose and partly because of the increasing number of students involved. These institutions have become the chief centers for research and development of new knowledge. They also have new purposes in the communication and dissemination of knowledge and particularly in the application of new knowledge to the development of programs for solving social problems.

STRUCTURE TO IMPLEMENT PURPOSES

My discussion will be limited to that part of educational government known as the public school system for elementary and secondary education.

I want to suggest three basic criteria for a strong state school system. (a) The first and most fundamental is *the optimization of conditions for learning and instruction.* (b) The second is *the capacity to provide service to support learning and instruction.* These services include such things as libraries; health, psychological, and other personnel services; administration; research; food service; transportation; and others. (c) The third is *a balance of control,* with the central focus residing in the local school system.

I am not suggesting a new design for a state school system but rather some improvements in the present one. I want to offer a design for redefining the functions of educational agencies at local, regional, state, and federal levels of government, in the belief that this may be a fruitful approach to consideration of structural characteristics. A diagram is shown in Figure I.

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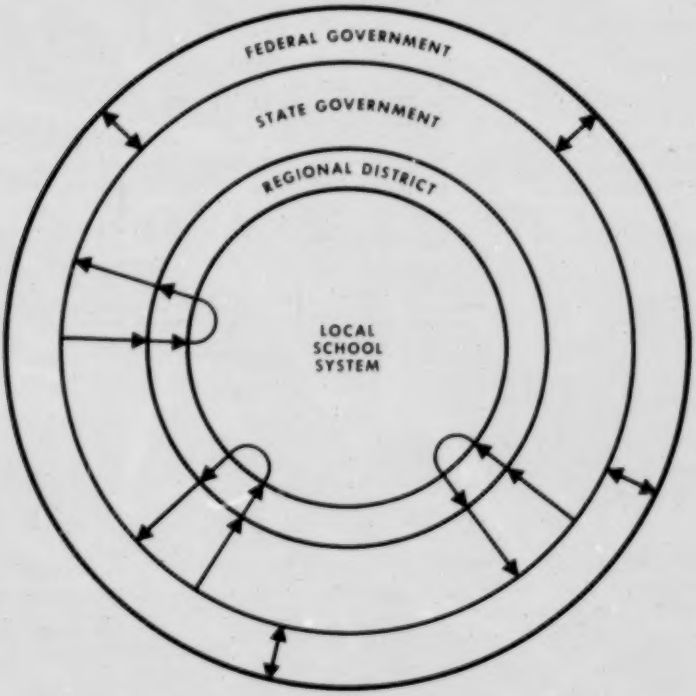
FIGURE I
DIRECTIONS OF RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN EDUCATIONAL AGENCIES AT DIFFERENT LEVELS OF GOVERNMENT



Level of Government	Functions
Federal	*Leadership in providing a national forum to clarify ideas, needs, and purposes; communication; federal-state fiscal policies.*
State	*Educational policy decisions:* clientele to be served; programs and services; personnel; facilities; criteria for organization of regional and local districts; allocation of funds to local systems; and delegation of responsibility to regional and local systems.
Regional (intermediate) district	*Special cooperative programs and services.*
Local school system	*Operational decisions:* organization of curriculum and staff; supervision; decision on the "mix" of programs and supporting services; microallocation of funds; evaluation.

This figure symbolizes the local school system as the central unit for the operation and control of education. As the capacity of this unit is strengthened and expanded there is a concomitant change in certain functions of regional and state agencies.

Federal Government

Some of the current terms referring to the federal government as a partner in the operation of education lack clear meaning. The activities of this unit of government have grown to such a magnitude and diversity as to defy a cogent description of either structure or function. I can only add one voice to thousands of others expressing the hope that action may be taken which will lead to a redirection of the federal government's participation in education.

There are many students of education who believe that the recent directions of change stimulated by the federal government can be developed best through a redefinition of the role of this government. I am suggesting that there are better fiscal policies than the present categorical aids and concomitant controls. Educational objectives in the national interest cannot, with very few exceptions, be separated by level of government To imply that responsible officials of educational government at the local level are not concerned with problems in the national interest is to insult their intelligence, their achievements, and their capability of accomplishment under favorable conditions. I do not believe that the best federal-state relations will exist until the federal government restricts its relations to the state government. This will require a fundamental change in fiscal policy and hence in the controls associated with present policies.

State Government

I believe that the state legislature is the center for establishment of basic educational policy; and it is on the basis of this policy that the conceptual designs of purposes, programs, and operational requirements should be developed and merged for the greatest probability of success. This policy should define who shall be served, the nature of education to be provided, the financial resources to be committed, the methods of distributing monies to local districts, and the methods of administration.

States must improve their administrative structures before they will be able to accomplish their educational objectives. They must make some changes in educational government at

state and local levels, and in some states at the intermediate level.

I doubt that any single state agency—such as a state board of regents for all education from early childhood education through the university—is the best type of unit for delegation of overall regulation and control of education. This has been tried in a few states but I believe the span of activity is too great for effective coordination and regulation. It seems to me that two state school systems are feasible, one system, headed by a board of education, for public elementary and secondary schools and another system for high education. This leaves some questions of articulation open but liaison structures can be established to handle these problems.

For the common schools, a lay board of education of somewhere between seven and eleven members seems to be the most appropriate agency. A state board of education needs a professional staff, commonly called the state department of education, headed by the state superintendent of education who should be appointed by the board. Most of our state departments suffer for lack of adequate financial support. Some of them suffer for lack of an internal structure flexible enough to adapt to changing functions of the office and to provide opportunity for effective, satisfying professional service by their members. By its very nature the state department performs regulatory functions. On the other hand, it also provides professional leadership in all phases of elementary and secondary education.

One of the big issues that must be studied and resolved in this country is the oversaturation of the state school system with school law; we have reached the point where we must reconsider the nature of law needed for governing education. One has only to make a cursory examination of the school code of any state to realize how impossible it is to acquire a clear picture of state education policy. Every school code I have observed is a massive agglomeration of regulations ranging from broad policy matters to the most detailed and prescriptive items. It requires, therefore, an inordinate amount of energy to learn the rules of school administration—witness first the amount of time devoted in many educational administration courses to the study, directly or indirectly, of what *is* or *can be done* administratively, and second the amount of time administrators spend keeping up with the rules they are expected to follow. In fact, they do not have enough time; hence local boards

of education must employ legal counsel to help keep the superintendents and boards of education out of trouble. At the state level the problem is equally serious because every state education department has a legal division whose task of interpreting the laws continues to grow.

I do not propose here to go into the subject of internal organization of state education departments, but I do have some comments to make which I think are extremely crucial. The demands of specialization are forcing questions about the reorganization of these offices along more functional lines than those of the past. Organization should contribute to unity and integration of professional activity throughout elementary and secondary grades. There is a need to reverse the tendency toward fragmentation of education into special fields that has developed as a result of earmarked aids. The trend toward fragmentation of programs with earmarked aids (state and federal) can lead only to increased difficulty. Such aids do more than assert the validity of these fields of activity; they give them a preferred status for the attraction and allocation of personnel among scarce resources.

Regional or Intermediate Agencies

I am referring here to the intermediate district as a regional cooperative between the state educational office and the local school district. I have long been an advocate of an intermediate type district under conditions where the people will not accept a structure of local districts with sufficient school population to organize and operate all needed programs and services. It is possible, however, to organize local districts which are operationally and administratively feasible in every state so that there would be little need for an intermediate type of district except perhaps for a few highly specialized services. Such a local district would have a school population including all clientele previously mentioned; that is, it could organize programs to meet the needs of all individuals with reasonable economy under the demographic conditions prevailing in the district. We know that many states have been unwilling to organize such local districts. Some of them have established small community-type districts with too few pupils for broad programs. On the other hand, every state has some districts that meet the criterion of size of school population, as well as other criteria of an adequate district.

Under conditions where states will not establish a local district structure of adequate size, there is justification for an intermediate type of agency. There have been many studies to find a rationale for this type of district: its organization, function, and operation. One major proposition that has been advanced is for an *autonomous unit*, with independent taxing power and independent decision-making authority, to provide special services and programs to local districts and to provide some services for the state education department. The other major proposition is for a regional unit that is *dependent* upon local district participation in determining the general policies of the agency. In each case, the function of the intermediate agency would be to serve special needs which could be done more appropriately on a regional basis than by existing local districts individually.

I prefer the latter system, with the orientation of control toward the local district and as little autonomy for the regional district as possible. This proposition, however, requires that local districts not be too small and week for the operation of the basic educational programs. Otherwise there would be too many local boards of education as constituent districts of the region for effective participation in deciding policies and promoting cooperative programs on a regional basis. The drawback in having separate, autonomous intermediate districts is that this leads to fragmentation of the educational process and a weakening of local responsibility for meeting problems in education that transcend the capacity of the local district to handle.

Local School District

The current trend in educational development is to create centers of various kinds sponsored by the federal government and state governments for special purposes including innovation, research, instructional facilities, and distribution of funds for special programs. One might argue that these developments are occurring as a result of the refusal of the citizens at large in many areas to face up to what constitutes the most adequate local school district structure under the demographic conditions prevailing in the state.

We have a concept of local control that needs reinterpretation in educational government. The reorganization of small local school districts into larger units leads to an increased capacity for local control rather than a decrease. I recently discussed

this proposition with citizens in a number of communities with these two examples: One is a single community with a unit district and one board of education for about 13,000 pupils. The other is a cluster of small surburban communities having a total of approximately the same number of pupils in 11 school districts—one high school district and 10 districts underlying it which operate only elementary schools. In these little communities there are 11 boards of education totaling 77 persons. My assertion is that the community with one board of education has more local control than any one of the boards in the other communities. The unified district has a broader scope of responsiblity; a broader program with greater diversity; a professional staff with wide diversity of talent; greater flexibility in the utilization of staff; and other advantages that could be cited. This district has far less need than any one of the smaller districts for any type of external professional service either from an intermdiate district or from the state-level agency or the federal government.

Noneducational Units of Government

There are some crucial problems to be resolved with reference to educational functions that are assigned to noneducational agencies of government. Considering first the state level, there has been a tendency in recent years for states to create an agency to administer a program or a function arising from a new need. Some states have established building authorities or commissions as a means of aiding local school systems to obtain buildings and facilities, usually without tackling the root of the problem by modifying local school district structure and the financial system. Commissions have been established for licensing private schools; for operating special schools for the deaf, the blind, and delinquent and near-delinquent youth; for establishing educational programs for penal institutions and programs to train the unemployed; and for other purposes. Why have these states not put these educational functions under a state board of education?

Another fragmentation of educational function has occurred at the state level in some instances by placing in separate agencies the responsibilities for budget review and for control over local school management. Separate auditing has been assigned to agencies outside the state department of education, and the federal auditors of categorical aids have added further com-

plications. One of the great threats to education today is the increasing fragmentation of external controls that stems from a proliferation of agencies and responsibilities.

There is a limit of our knowledge concerning just what is the best composition of various components of a complex school system; we do not have a scientific formula for determining a pupil-teacher class size, ratio of guidance and counseling specialists to regular teachers, proporation of time to be devoted to admniistration in relation to teaching time, or other components. In a soap factory a precise formula of raw materials and man-hours of work at each stage of production, packaging, shipping, and sales can be calculated to produce an exact product. In eduation the problem is infinitely more complex because it involves human beings with characteristics which have not become completely amenable to specific measurement. Thus, much of what we know about the intricacies of putting these components together in a local school system is dependent heavily upon presumptive knowledge of dedicated professional leaders who do operate within the framework of the scientific method. The actions of external agents like auditors and state finance budget officers, decision-makers on financial grants to support particular programs, and others who do not have the benefit of knowledge available to responsible leaders cannot be expected to yield results superior to the leaders. Until our knowledge advances further to permit external agencies to evaluate the intricate, complex structure of a state school system, we shall do well to start unifying rather than to continue fragmenting the educational process at the local district level and the state level.

SUMMARY

The most important principle in educational government that we have established in this country is that the system of government for education is *set apart but not completely separate* from the civil government. That is, the structure of educational government is set apart sufficiently to protect education against the whims of political partisanship which may lead to intrusion of activities which are irrelevant, if not harmful, to education.

The structure of educational government must provide the opportunity for career commitment and development of professional personel.

Specialization of function is another requirement of the local

school system. A small high school, for example, that offers only one class in the first and second year of a foreign language can hardly offer a satisfying professional opportunity to a teacher who specialized in a particular foreign language. Many teachers in small schools are spending most of their time in fields where they have only minor preparation for teaching rather than in fields of their specialities.

The teacher today wants to teach in a school or a school system that offers an opportunity for working in his field of major preparation, with access to specialists who can be of assistance. He wants supportive services such as secretarial service and others which make it possible for him to utilize his professional talents most effectively as a teacher. He wants opportunity for promotion within the organization. These are some of the conditions which he feels are necessary to accomplish the educational objectives of today.

The Public

A local school system that is organized with a great capacity for education likewise has capacity to interact more effectively with other institutions in the community and the state. Community planning *can* be more than lip service as a cooperative venture between the school system and other agencies of society.

External Controls

There are three types of external controls which I think bear close scrutiny. The first of these is the allocation of funds for the support of specific educational activities. It is time that we re-examine all types of special aids, either state or federal, for the indirect controls that are being exerted on the total program. The second one is the distortion of the curriculum of the school, either directly or indirectly. The third one is the influence on instruction. We may expect, in the future years, to see an increasing degree of centralization in the production and distribution of instructional materials and media. Many questions are being asked about this trend and its implications.

All of this brings me to the final thought that the governance of education may be one of the central issues of our time. Until we clarify its form and its processes, we may be incapable either of formulating defensible purposes or of giving reasonable assurance of their fulfillment.

THE NEBRASKA SERVICE UNIT

Its Provisions, Problems and Potential

William R. Schroeder

In August 1965, just a few days before it was scheduled to adjourn, Nebraska's unicameral legislature enacted what is now commonly referred to throughout the state as LB 301. This legislation created 19 multicounty educational service units designed to provide supplementary educational services for local school districts. As conceived by the legislature, the educational services to be provided would be those which local school districts could not provide at local level either because their enrollment was too small to justify the particular offering or because their financial base was not sufficient for them to do so.

CONTRIBUTING FACTORS

Clearly motivating the passage of LB 301 were the status of school organization and operation throughout the state and the seeming inability of anyone or any group over the years to make any major modification of it. Nebraska is not only a state with a sparse population in most of its area, but also one having far too many local school districts and virtually no state financial support for these educational units.

Nebraska's total population is slightly below 1.5 million people and a majority of these citizens live in the eastern part of the state. The total number of school children in the state in 1965 was 318,881 pupils. The same year the state had 2,546 legally recognized local school districts having enrollments ranging from one pupil to more than 59,000. Only 163 of these school districts had enrollments of more than 300 pupils, and only the two metropolitan districts of Lincoln and Omaha had enrollments of more than 10,000.

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The state's provisions for financing education compound the problems created by too many too small local school districts. Ever since school districts were organized in this state they have been dependent upon a local tax on real property as the major source of their financial support. The state has never had a state sales tax or an income tax. While there appears to be a growing recognition of the need for a broader state tax base with some of the revenue designated for state aid to education and for a substantially increased effort to bring about the reorganization of local school districts into more efficient administrative units, specific achievement along these lines is yet to be realized.

The situation of a state school system predominantly made up of poorly financed small local districts is denying thousands of Nebraska's children and youth adequate educational opportunities. Little or nothing is being done by most local school districts to provide for exceptional children. Most districts have no supervisory service and do not provide for the inservice growth and development of teachers. School libraries are generally most inadequate in terms of materials for both teacher and student use. Guidance services are in most instances incomplete, and school health services are almost nonexistent in rural areas. Adult education is neglected and school administrators attempt to operate their school systems with little or no assistance. The schools over the state do operate, but the programs offered tend to be a basic minimum, if indeed they even measure up that high.

While the need for substantial reorganization of school districts in such circumstances should be immediately obvious, progress has been unusually slow. The concept of local control is a reality to all Nebraskans, and all the arguments ever conceived to undermine and resist reorganization efforts seem to be supported when school district reorganization proposals are suggested. And with the criteria presently applicable to the reorganization of districts, successful reorganization statewide would result in creating a large percentage of school districts still able to provide only a portion of the needed educational services.

The circumstances here described are well documented by numerous studies by graduate students and are generally acknowledged by most of the state's educational leaders. As

early as 1948 the Nebraska County Superintendents Association began raising questions about its own role in bringing about needed improvements. How the educational needs of children and youth might be met in such a vast area of sparse population seemed almost impossible to conceive. Between 1954 and 1962 this Association, though limited in its influence and resources, financed a series of studies with the cooperation of the University of Nebraska's Teachers College. While the focus of these studies was in part on the county superintendency structure, determination of how all aspects of education and educational programs might be improved was the primary goal.

The studies carried on show clearly that Nebraska's existing county intermediate units are confronted with the same kinds of problems that face local school districts. They have neither an adequate pupil population nor adequate taxable wealth to enable them to provide needed educational services in an equitable and efficient manner. The research identified a wide range of what generally are regarded as essential educational services but which were not commonly provided in the schools of the state. These studies also arrived at a minimum pupil population of 10,000 as necessary for the efficient administration of the educational services which make up a comprehensive school program. These studies not only provided the information needed to support the enactment of the multicounty intermediate unit legislation (LB 301), but also developed the almost unanimous support of county school superintendents in the state for the bill.

LEGISLATIVE PROVISIONS

The provisions of Nebraska's Educational Service Unit bill, LB 301, are both specific and far-reaching. The legislature firmly established into law the boundaries of each of the 19 service areas and provided that all territory in the state would be included in one of these units. The service units range from an area made up of two counties to one which includes nine counties. (See Figure 1.) The law provides that each of these newly created service units will be governed by a board elected by the people. Each county within the service area is authorized to elect one member, and in addition four members will be elected on an at-large basis by all the voters of the entire unit. To expedite implementation of the act, the statute provides that

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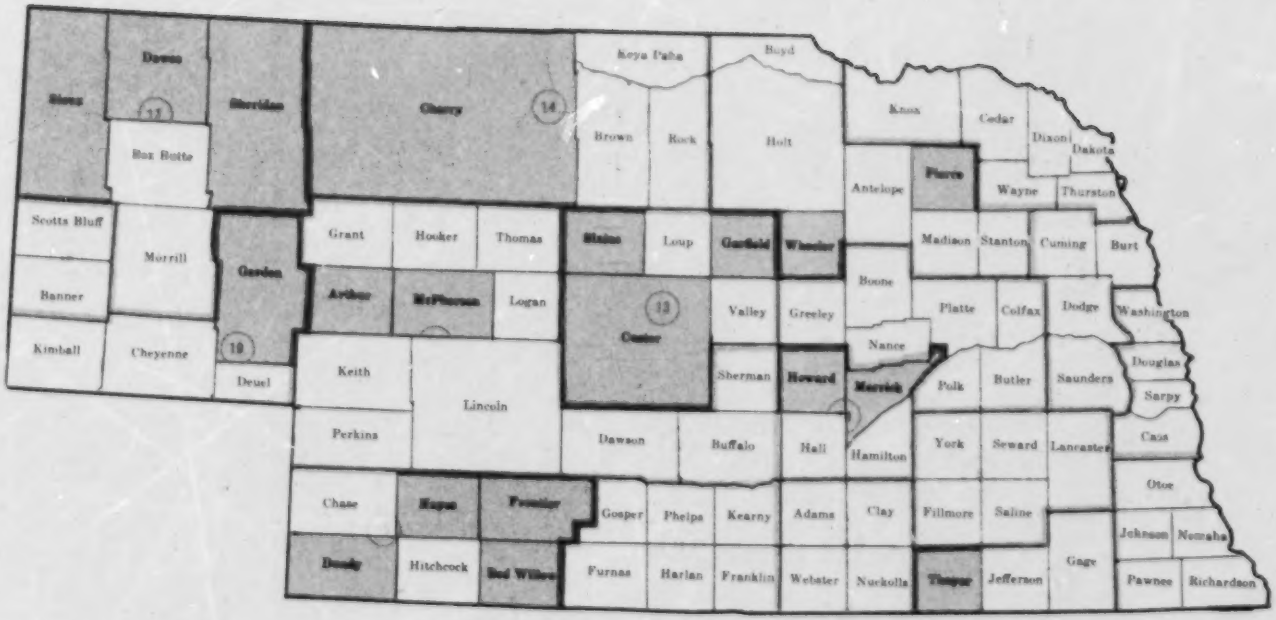

Source: State Department of Education, Lincoln, Nebraska

FIGURE I. EDUCATIONAL SERVICE UNIT AREAS ESTABLISHED BY LB 301 AND COUNTIES WHICH VOTED FOR EXCLUSION FROM THEM

the initial boards be appointed by the Governor of Nebraska.

The powers granted to service unit boards are similar in most respects to those vested in the boards of education of local school districts. They are empowered to appoint an experienced, qualified administrator and may, upon the recommendation of their administrator, appoint as many qualified staff members and clerical personnel as are needed to perform the service programs undertaken. To finance its operation, the board is empowered to levy a tax not to exceed one mill on the dollar on the assessed valuation of all the real and personal property within the boundaries of the educational service unit. In addition, the board may enter into contractural agreements with other educational agencies to finance services and may receive any state or federal funds that may be or may become available to them. A further provision empowers the board to acquire any needed property or facilities either by lease or purchase.

The purpose of the service unit is stated specifically in the statute as "providing supplementary educational services." Also specified are three different methods by which the service programs undertaken can be provided: (a) the development of specialized educational services directly administered and operated through the service unit board; (b) the development of shared service programs offered on a cooperative basis between local school districts with the service unit assisting in their planning and coordination; and (c) contracting for educational services with the board of any other educational service unit, any other educational agency, or any appropriate state or federal office or agency. The service agency is also specified as the agency which will be responsible for administering federally financed programs for those school districts which are not properly organized to be eligible to receive federal funds and for districts which would be allocated such small sums that significant projects and programs of consequence could hardly be undertaken. The educational service unit will be the agency to utilize such funds for a regional or interdistrict approach to implementing service programs.

This identification of what might be considered rather sweeping provisions was offset in large part by a number of additional provisions of LB 301. The high value Nebraskans place on local control has previously been noted, and a number of provisions in the educational service unit legislation guarantee

that control will be kept as close to the people as possible. In addition to providing for the election of service unit board members, the bill safeguards local control by requiring that the service unit board must cooperate with local school district boards of education in the planning of all service programs undertaken on a regional basis. A further provision permits any county to withdraw from the educational service unit and the provisions of the law. If at least 5 percent of the legal voters in each of three-fifths of the local school districts of any county sign a petition requesting that the issue be placed on the ballot of the next general election, inclusion of that county as an integral part of the educational service unit is subject to a countywide referendum. If at the election a majority vote for exclusion, the county shall be declared independent of the service unit.

To assist in the statewide implementation of this network of service units the State Board of Education is empowered by this legislation to initiate and administer its provisions and to draft any necessary rules and regulations which will be consistent with statutes governing State Board powers.

SPECIAL PROBLEMS

Any major legislative enactment requires a certain amount of interpretation and understanding before it can be properly implemented. Problems involving time and adjustment can commonly be anticipated whenever a new program or procedure is developed. Introducing a concept of educational services for which the state has no precedent as well as an entirely new structure for this purpose has created more special problems than normally arise.

The most difficult problem the new educational service units may face grows out of the state's history of meager educational offerings. There is a general lack of awareness of the many types of educational offerings and the diverse range of specialized educational services which in some other states and areas are considered essential in any comprehensive program. The need to develop a broader understanding of what constitutes a modern educational program exists among both professional educators and the general public. For too long communities have been satisfied with less than the best, with partial educational programs. The situation of not missing the

kinds of things you don't know anything about applies in many areas of the state. Developing some conviction that equality of educational opportunity means that students in sparsely settled areas and small towns are entitled to as high a level of instruction and as broad a range of specialized services as are students anywhere will be a challenge for the best educational leadership that can be brought to bear. It undoubtedly will need to be a long-range program.

A somewhat related problem requiring the development of both lay and professional understanding grows from the regional nature of the newly created educational service units. Providing educational services on a multicounty regional basis is an entirely new concept in Nebraska. The approach is so different from what anyone has had previous experience with or understanding of that there is an almost automatic tendency for it to be suspect. The task ahead will be one of both demonstrating the efficiency of the regional approach to providing specialized educational services and reassuring all concerned that local control can be preserved and strengthened through utilizing the services provided by the educational service unit. The fear that the service unit boards along with the state and federal governments may destroy local school districts and local autonomy will need to be resolved.

Other special problems concerning implementation of the service unit legislation are much more specific. The law requires, for example, that each of the newly created service units conduct an educational survey of the educational needs in its regional area and establish priorities for programs to meet them. While surveying needs and establishing priorities is a difficult undertaking under any circumstance, complexities with respect to the service unit legislation are creating unavoidable delays and other special problems. There were no provisions in the new law for the service unit boards to have any immediate access to funds for employing administrators or hiring professional survey services. Under the timing provisions of Nebraska's tax laws, the date on which the Educational Service Unit bill became effective was after the deadline date for setting a tax levy. Thus, no levy could be made under the provisions of this law until July 1966, and no collections from the levies were available to the service unit boards until December 1966. This absence of funds has made it necessary for those boards

which have moved ahead with a survey of educational needs in their service areas to do so with a minimum of professional assistance. With funds only recently available, several of the service unit boards have begun the task of recruiting an administrator. But, again, the timing is bad. Midyear is not a good time to recruit personnel. Most of the qualified and competent administrators who might be employed are under contract or have a professional obligation to remain at their present position for the remainder of the school year.

A feeling of genuine concern on the part of some who are advocates of substantial local school district reorganization might also be considered a special problem. Certainly developing understanding will be necessary. For there are those who are fearful that the development of educational service units sufficiently strong to provide a wide range of specialized educational services on a regional basis will actually encourage the retention of many small rural elementary school districts and many of the inadequate unified school districts. It is felt that if these districts are able to alleviate their present inadequacies through the supplementary services offered on a regional basis, the major motivation which would force them into reorganization would be weakened if indeed not removed entirely. The belief is held that many inadequate school districts may be kept in existence by the programs of the educational service units.

The final special problem identified here is the rather unique situation created by passage of the Educational Service Unit bill. The legislation did not abolish the office of the county superintendent. The result is that Nebraska now has two systems of intermediate units covering the entire state. With but few exceptions, the county school offices have been extremely limited in the extent to which they have been able to develop any kind of educational service program. Limited pupil enrollments and lack of sufficient financial resources have prevented them from entering into this type of activity. In many instances the county superintendent has been unable to perform much more than the routine functions of collecting statistical data for the State Department of Education and acting as the local agency in administering the state's school district reorganization statutes. These duties remain the responsibility of the county superintendent. The problem which will face the legislature is a con-

sideration of whether or not these duties might be reassigned when the educational service units are firmly established and operative.

It can be seen that some of the special problems facing the newly developing educational service units are of an educational nature and will require educational leadership in order to be resolved. Others are legal in nature and additional legislation may be required for their solution. All of them will require time—time for the service units to be established, time for them to begin operating significant service programs, time for them to demonstrate the efficiency of the regional service agency approach, and time for everyone to realize the great forward step for education that this legislation might well become.

THE ELECTION TEST

It may well seem that a sufficient number of obstacles confront the newly created educational service units to virtually prevent their development at all. Certainly there have been delays in getting the hoped-for regional service programs into operation. But the future for the new agency seems much more promising than it did just a few months ago. A major test has been met, and the results were overwhelmingly successful.

Described earlier were those provisions in the law which permit a relatively small number of petitioners to place before the voters at a general election the question of the official membership of any county in its designated educational service unit. A negative vote by a majority of those voting would eliminate that county from participation in or any responsibility for the new regional service agency. An affirmative vote would assure their participation in the agency and such service programs as it might develop but would also make that county subject to the levy of this new taxing agency. An organized, statewide effort to render the new legislation ineffective was begun, and petitions were filed from 79 of the 93 counties in the state. Those who opposed the development of these new service units associated their establishment with school district reorganization, the centralization of authority, and higher taxes in their efforts to appeal to voters.

It was felt by Nebraska's educational leaders that most counties would actually prefer to remain as part of their service unit if a sound information program could be implemented and an understanding of how the new agencies could strengthen

education could be developed. Accordingly, the Nebraska State Department of Education, the University of Nebraska, the Nebraska State Education Association, the Nebraska County Superintendents Association, and the Nebraska Association of School Administrators pooled their talents and resources and set out to inform the electorate of the nature and intent of the legislation.

Thus the lines were drawn, and the election of November 8, 1966, at which time all exclusion petitions were voted on, was a major test of whether the new legislation would be given a chance to succeed. Sixty of the 79 counties considering the question of exclusion voted down the proposal to withdraw. Overwhelming the decision was to participate as part of the educational service units. It was a victory for education in Nebraska.

The 60 counties which rejected the proposal to withdraw together with those 14 counties which did not file petitions to consider the question total 74 of the 93 counties in Nebraska which are now definitely component members of the 19 educational service units. Ten of the areas are completely intact. (See Figure I.) Six of the service units which lost some counties have already indicated their intention to establish programs of supplementary services for the remaining territory and to offer these same services on a contract basis to any individual school district within excluded counties that may wish to participate. Since more than 92 percent of the people in the state reside in counties which are now an integral part of an educational service unit, the election test was met head-on and largely won.

POTENTIAL YET TO BE REALIZED

It can be seen from the foregoing discussion that nearly two years have passed since the enactment of LB 301, and yet its potential is still to be demonstrated. It is now a "going" operation. The educational service unit structure not only blankets the state but promises to become an administrative vehicle capable of resolving some of the inequality of educational opportunity that has existed in high degree in Nebraska.

There is now a renewed hope that some of the legislature's expectation may at last become reality. The provisions of the law and the controversies and discussion which have ensued have created a desire on the part of professional educators,

parents and members of boards of education to re-examine and re-evaluate the educational offerings in local school districts. The educational surveys being conducted in the various service areas are stimulating genuine concern about the inadequacies of existing programs. Attitudes are changing. Many people are not only for the first time recognizing the existing educational inadequacies but are also aware that there is now a possibility for doing something about them. Defeatism is giving way to an attitude of searching for solutions.

In retrospect, this positive thinking about education was strengthened by the filing of petitions for the withdrawal of counties and the subsequent election. A "rally to the cause" spirit was developed and the contest brought forth an information program regarding the potential of the service unit structure that might otherwise have been neglected. Most Nebraskans now know what they have and have some understanding of what it might become and do. It is also possible that the cooperative action by the state's major educational groups prior to the last general election will carry over and face other educational problems with similar determination and unity of effort.

There is little now standing in the way of regional service program development. If significant programs are undertaken, the efficacy of the regional approach will undoubtedly be demonstrated. It is believed that the approach is completely sound; anything less would hardly be defensible. There is, in fact, a developing interest on the part of other groups in looking for regional approaches to meeting local public needs. For example, the State Health Department and the Division of Public Welfare are looking seriously at the educational service unit areas as an alternative to the political boundaries of counties for the administration of their activities.

It still remains to be seen how much and how rapidly the service units will be able to achieve some of their potential. While the law limits their activities to providing "supplementary educational services," a recent interpretation by the Attorney General defines as supplemental "those educational services not now provided throughout Nebraska by existing school systems." The latitude is great indeed. There are some who regard LB 301 as the most important legislative enactment in Nebraska in more than a decade. How well it measures up to such expectations depends now on the wisdom, vision, and leadership of boards of education, administrators, and the staffs they employ.

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This study was designed to determine the extent of need for services and leadership, and to determine how geographic characteristics relate to need for services from the county superintendent's office. Data about school administrators' perceptions concerning the need for the intermediate unit were obtained from questionnaires returned by 11 county superintendents and 131 local district superintendents. In addition, personal interviews were conducted with selected staff members of the State Department of Education to obtain their perceptions at the state level of school administration.

MONTGOMERY, CHARLES DONALD. *The Evolution of the Intermediate Unit in Contra Costa County, 1852-1962.* Berkeley: University of California, 1966. 265 p. (Order No. 66-8343).

A history of the changing role of the county school office from 1852 to 1962. The study recommends modifying the California Education Code so that the county school office can adjust its program of services to meet the changing needs and conditions in the schools of the county.

MORGAN, HOWARD GILBERT. *Development and Status of Special Education in Michigan Counties Under the County Special Education Act in 1960.* Detroit: Wayne State University, 1962. 112 p. (Order No. 63-2219).

A comparison of the status of special education in Michigan before and after the adoption of the County Special Educa-

tion Act. The number of handicapped children receiving special services more than doubled, expenditures tripled, and state financial support of local programs tripled in the counties studied after adoption of the Act, although an acute shortage of special personnel and communication problems persists. The largest increases in services were found in the larger, more populous counties.

MUNSHAW, CARROLL LAMBERT. *The Extent of Agreement and Disagreement Among Selected Officials Regarding the Role of the County School Office in Wayne County, Michigan.* Detroit: Wayne State University, 1958. 332 p. (L.C. Card No. Mic 58-2048).

A determination of the extent to which school officials agree (or disagree) with what the role of the county school office should be. Findings indicate a present and future need for the county office and a conceptualization of its role as a provider of services to local districts rather than as an administrative agency.

NELSON, NORBERT J. *The Status Attributed to County Superintendents by Local School Administrators in Wisconsin.* Madison: University of Wisconsin, 1956. 404 p. (Mic 58-4895), (Publication No. 19,123).

Ascertains the professional status accorded to county superintendents by local school administrators; and relates professional status to working relationships, the utilization of county educational services by local school districts, personal and situational factors, and the role conceptions of both local and county administrators.

ORD, JOHN ELISHA. *Critical Competencies of County School Consultants in the Improvement of Instruction.* Palo Alto, Calif.: School of Education, Stanford University, June 1958. 115 p.

An operational statement of supervisory behavior of county school consultants (as viewed by both teachers and consultants) considered critical for effective supervision in the rural public schools of Northern California. The study includes descriptions of "effectiveness" as perceived by these reference groups, and definition and clarification of the nature of the supervisory behavior which seemed to differentiate between competence and incompetence.

PRINCE, DONALD MATTISON. *Administration of Special Services in Community Schools: A Study of Factors Related to Community Unit Superintendents' Concepts of Administration of Selected Special Services and an Investigation of the Administrative Structure for their Provision.* Urbana: University of Illinois, 1954. 144 p. (Publication No. 7865), (Mic A54-1394).

Examines what underlies the differences of opinion among ten local community unit district superintendents regarding the assignment of direct administrative responsibility for special services which some educational leaders strongly advocate as prime responsibilities of an intermediate school district. In the light of findings, the study searches out new insights which will contribute to better organization and administration of seven special services.

PRINGLE, ROBERT ANDREW. *A Proposal for a New Intermediate Administrative Structure for Education in Illinois.* Urbana: University of Illinois, 1964. 202 p. (Order No. 65-885).

Develops and applies a set of criteria to the 102 intermediate school districts in Illinois and points up the need for a more efficient and economical intermediate district structure. A statewide plan of 18 intermediate units based on educational functions without relation to existing county boundaries is proposed.

RINEHART, JOHN SHAW. *The Function, Organization, and Operation of the County School District in Ohio.* Columbus: Ohio State University, 1957. 477 p. (Mic 57-2021), (Publication No. 21,495).

An analysis of the origin, development, function, organization, operation, and status of the county school district in Ohio, identifying both the present and possible future role of the intermediate unit. The study found the structure and organization of the county school district to be ambiguous and ineffective. Interviews of county educational personnel, county political officials, and other lay people were used for the analysis. Study recommendations call for a more functional intermediate unit in Ohio—a new type of unit based upon a concept of service and involving the active participation of those affected.

SABIN, ROBERT CLARENCE. *A Survey of the Need for an Intermediate School District in Oregon with Implications for Its Future Development.* Eugene: University of Oregon, June 1965.

A determination from related research and from the opinions of selected groups of school officials and school board chairmen in Oregon as to the need for an intermediate school district, and a determination of services provided and their adequacy. A plan for intermediate school district organization for Oregon is proposed and tested against validated criteria.

SARRAT, NORMAN HARRIS. *Pupil Transportation in Santa Clara County Public Schools.* Palo Alto: Stanford University, 1956. 266 p. (Mic 57-135), (Publication No. 19,907).

An analysis of present pupil transportation in Santa Clara County public schools and an investigation of possibilities for centralizing facilities and services for more efficient and economical operation. A recommendation is made for the addition of a coordinator of pupil transportation services to the staff of the intermediate unit (County Superintendent of Schools) to achieve desirable centralization of school bus ownership and control.

SCHAIBLY, COLON LEE. *A Study of Selected Functions of the County School Office in Michigan.* East Lansing: Michigan State University, 1956. 271 p. (Mic 57-2408), (Publication No. 21,386).

An exploration of the need for the county office of education in Michigan in terms of services which should be provided to local districts and to the state educational authority, the types of duties currently performed by county offices, and an examination of the selection, composition, and functions of county boards of education. The study finds a need for the intermediate unit in Michigan but recommends modification in some areas of the state to create intermediate units more nearly capable of providing the functions required from them.

SHOLD, WALTER OLIVER. *Alternate Possible Patterns of Development for the Office of the County Superintendency in Oregon.* Pullman: Washington State University, 1961. 116 p. (L.C. Card No. Mic 61-1309).

A proposal of alternative plans for the development of intermediate administrative units in Oregon. Recommendations include retention of the intermediate unit, changes in Oregon laws to provide flexibility in its organization and operation,

and appointment of a committee to develop acceptance of a modified plan and study the development of junior colleges in relation to intermediate administrative units.

SHOWERS, LLOYD WHARTON. *Changing Functions of the County Superintendency in Pennsylvania Schools.* University Park: Pennsylvania State University, 1961. 293 p. (Order No. Mic 61-2399).

A comparison, analysis, and projection of the duties and functions of the county office for 1950, 1960, and 1970 which finds them more important in 1960 than in 1950 and predicts an increase or retention of importance for 1970. Study recommendations include increased state staffing and financing of county offices with specialists and a redefinition of the duties of the office of the County Superintendent of Schools by the General Assembly in terms of present activities and future possibilities.

SMITH, FRANK HENRY. *An Evaluation of the Intermediate Unit of Public School Administration in Minnesota with a Plan of Reorganization.* Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, 1961. 536 p. (Order No. 61-4176).

A development and application of criteria for evaluation of Minnesota's intermediate units. Major deficiencies in the present Minnesota system are identified. A pilot plan replacing the existing county superintendency with 30 area-based intermediate units is proposed.

SPECHT, EDWIN M. *A Program of Curricular Services To Be Performed by County Units in Serving Secondary Schools of California.* Los Angeles: University of California, Los Angeles, 1960.

A determination of what is considered to be the reasonable minimum program of curricular services (library, pupil personnel, supervision and coordination, pupils with special needs, audiovisual) that county school units should provide for secondary schools.

STIER, JULIUS HENRY. *An Inquiry into the Need for and Use of Inter-District and Cooperative Programs for the Education of Exceptional Children.* Los Angeles: University of Southern California, 1956.

A survey of the status of educational opportunities for exceptional children and the extent to which inter-district coopera-

tion is permitted or encouraged by state law. The study includes information on the operation of cooperative programs and arrives at specific recommendations for extending educational opportunities to more of the exceptional children in the State of California.

TAXIS, DAVID OLIVER. *The Role of the County Industrial Arts Consultant in California*. Los Angeles: University of Southern California, 1962. 314 p. (Order No. 62-3749).

A determination of the role of the county industrial arts consultant in California as viewed by district superintendents, district industrial arts supervisors, industrial arts teachers, teacher educators, and county consultants. Proposes that all areas of the state be provided with an industrial arts consultant at the intermediate level and recommends that this service cut across county political boundaries in small and sparsely populated areas.

THORSELL, MARGUERITE VIRGINIA. *The Education of Educable Mentally Retarded Children in Sparsely Populated Rural Areas*. Lawrence: University of Kansas, 1964. 329 p.

An evaluation of a program for educable mentally retarded children in rural Kansas in which a consultant worked with classroom teachers. Study points out that problems are created by travel distance and wide chronological ages, and recommends that some type of administrative organization other than the special class needs to be developed.

TURNER, GLENN EVERETT. *The Location and Administration of Intermediate School Districts for the State of Nebraska*. Lincoln: University of Nebraska, 1959. 133 p. (L.C. Card No. Mic 60-130).

A determination of the appropriate location and administrative organization of intermediate school districts for the State of Nebraska. Application of criteria developed for measuring the adequacy of intermediate school districts resulted in a proposal for 31 intermediate units in Nebraska.

WALTER, ROBERT LOUIS. *The Feasibility, Practicality, and Acceptability of Cooperative Action Among Ohio Independent Suburban School Districts*. Columbus: Ohio State University, 1960. 199 p. (L.C. No. Mic 60-6415).

An evaluation of cooperative inter-district action as a means by which suburban schools might provide programs of education comparable in scope and quality to those of the metropolitan core city. Consideration is given to the types of services and specialized personnel sought for inter-district programs and the relationship of district size and wealth to expressed interest in inter-district cooperation.

WILLEY, DAVID AUGUSTUS. *A Comparative Study of Perceptions of and Expectations for the Role of the County Superintendent in California.* Palo Alto: Stanford University, 1963. 122 p. (Order No. 64-1582).

An examination of the perception or judgment and expectations of county superintendents, district superintendents, and state legislators of California relating selected functions of the county superintendent, the effect of district size, and the changing nature of the role upon this perception. County superintendents' responses reflect an awareness of the role they are most expected to perform, viz. that of services to local districts.

WILLIAMS, LLOYD E. *Socio-Economic Criteria as the Basis for Intermediate School Districts in North Dakota.* University: University of North Dakota, 1961.

An investigation of the possibility of utilizing socioeconomic critera rather than arbitrary political boundaries as bases for forming more effective intermediate school districts for North Dakota. A proposal is made for eight new multicounty districts surrounding the major cities of the state.

No annotations were available for the following dissertations: HONAKER, LINTON RICHARD. *County Supervision in Northeastern Ohio.* Cleveland: Western Reserve University, 1961.

MCCARTY, HENRY ROSAMOND, JR. *An Appraisal of Selected Aspects of County Audio-Visual Service Centers in the United States.* Lubbock: Texas Technological College, 1959.

ROGERS, WILLARD B. *An Evaluation of the Oakland County, Michigan, Perceptual Development Pilot Program, September 1961 to June 1964.* Detroit: Wayne State University, June 1965.

SKELLY, HARRY JAMES. *Audio-Visual Services in Counties of Northern California.* Palo Alto: Stanford University, 1956. 193 p.